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ABSTRACT

Articles focusing on UNESCO's role in educational development in Asian and Pacific countries are gathered in this issue commemorating UNESCO's 40th anniversary and the 25th anniversary of the Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific. Following an overview of educational needs and achievements, current activities of four UNESCO offices for Asia and the Pacific are summarized: Regional Office for Education, Regional Advisor for Culture, Regional Advisor for the Social and Human Sciences, and Office of Public Information. Background of UNESCO involvement in regional educational development is emphasized in articles on population education, universal primary education, eradication of illiteracy, higher education, teacher education, cultural activities, and educational management. Educational reforms in individual countries are subjects of 16 articles; countries discussed include India, Japan, Malaysia, Pakistan, Australia, People's Republic of China, Republic of Korea, Sri Lanka, Thailand, and the Pacific Islands. Article topics include upgrading science education in developing countries, instituting a sustainable literacy program, technological manpower development, cultural preservation, and education for the future, in addition to descriptions of national education reforms. Many articles are accompanied by figures, tables, black and white photographs and short bibliographies; author information is provided. (LFL)

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is dedicated to the International
Year of Peace*



UNESCO IN ASIA
AND THE PACIFIC:
40 YEARS ON

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UNESCO IN ASIA
AND THE PACIFIC:
40 YEARS ON

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PREFACE

Makaminan Makagiansar

*Assistant Director-General for Co-ordination
of Unesco Activities in Asia and the Pacific
and Director, Regional Office for Education
in Asia and the Pacific*

It was a happy coincidence for UNESCO when the United Nations General Assembly declared 1986 as the International Year of Peace, for 1986 was also the year of UNESCO's 40th anniversary and nothing could amount to a more appropriate tribute to UNESCO's mission and its accomplishments than to commemorate it in such a way.

For us in the UNESCO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific (ROEAP), the occasion has an added significance. This also is the year that marks the 25th anniversary of the establishment of this office. A fitting tribute to the significant contribution made by this regional office in serving the needs of the Member States lies in the fact that, on its 25th birthday, it is being made the Principal Regional Office for the Asia and Pacific region, with expanded responsibilities.

The paramount goal for which UNESCO was established was to create conditions for a stable and lasting peace through education, science and culture. If the United Nations was created to 'save succeeding generations from the scourge of war', UNESCO was created to contribute to that process by 'constructing defences of peace in the minds' of human beings. If the UN was created to bring the nations of the world to work together to remove the curse of poverty, disease and hunger, then UNESCO was created to lay the intellectual and moral foundation for it by promoting education for all, the wide diffusion of culture and the free exchange of ideas and knowledge. By declaring firmly that it is 'ignorance of each others ways and lives' and the 'denial of democratic principles of the dignity, equality and mutual respect' among human beings, that causes war, the UNESCO Constitution called upon all nations to create that climate of mutual respect and international co-operation that would further 'universal respect for justice, for the rule of law and for the human rights and fundamental freedoms which are affirmed for the peoples of the world, without distinction of race, sex, language or religion'.

If the relationship between peace and the work of UNESCO is not so obvious, it is so because we have got accustomed to thinking of peace only as an absence of war. Not of peace as a moral prerogative, or as a precondition for humanity's spiritual and material growth. But history is clear in its teaching. In the words of the UNESCO Constitution, 'a peace based exclusively upon political and economic arrangements of governments' is not a lasting peace. Only a peace that enjoys the spontaneous support of the people, a peace that is founded on the intellectual and moral solidarity of mankind, is a peace that lasts. And it is UNESCO's task, to bring that intellectual and moral solidarity about through the spread of education, science, culture and communication, through an increase in the shared knowledge of each other's culture and history, literacy and scientific achievements. All of this will hopefully break down the barriers of ignorance and prejudice and bring about tolerance, a sense of a shared destiny and mutual respect.

The relevance of UNESCO's work is perhaps more strikingly driven home if the argument is started from the opposite side. Imagine a modern world where UNESCO does not exist. Imagine also that every nation is convinced of the need to bring about a stable peace. Once in search of a stable peace, nations will realize that there exists a huge knowledge gap between them that requires bridging, there are stiff walls of prejudice between cultures that need to be demolished, there are fires of hatred that require to be extinguished.

All this can be achieved by 'promoting collaboration among nations through education, science and culture. For the nations in search of a stable peace the task at hand would have been clear. The peoples of the world would have to be convinced, as Einstein in his *Notes on Pacifism* said, that 'peace cannot be kept by force. It can only be achieved by understanding'.

It was on the basis of the above realization that UNESCO was created. It is the same realization today that compels us to preserve and strengthen UNESCO to serve the cause of intellectual co-operation, mutual respect and peace.

For forty years UNESCO has worked relentlessly for a better future for mankind. Yet the world of today is more afflicted by poverty, hunger and disease than ever before. There is as much, if not more unreasonableness, prejudice and ignorance than the world has ever seen.

We are far from reaching the goals that we have set for ourselves. Illiteracy has not yet been eradicated and education is yet to be made available to all. Science is not yet exclusively in the service of life. Culture is yet to be a unity in diversity where every nation can find a reflection of its heritage.

Yet the achievements, have been, in some ways, rather startling. Education has been given its rightful place as a fundamental human right and is pursued with vigour and zeal wherever dire poverty does not prevent it.

There are more scientists working together and collaborating with their counterparts today than ever before in solving such common problems as those of the environment; ecology; desertification; pollution; erosion; natural disasters.

There is now a far deeper awareness of the cultural heritage of the different people of the world and a stronger movement for its restoration, preservation and dissemination.

The support for greater communication between peoples and exchange of information between all nations and regions of the world is now unanimous. The need for greater contemporary knowledge of each other is universally felt and there is a desire on the part of all, to increase communication infrastructure and professional training so as to facilitate free flow and greater exchange of information among all.

In all this UNESCO can claim to have played a critical role.

As regards, the Asia and the Pacific region, UNESCO's most significant contribution has been, and continues to be, in the field of education. Perhaps in no other sector has UNESCO's contribution in the development of this region been so vital. Australia, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Japan, New Zealand, the Republic of Korea and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics have already acquired 100 per cent literacy. There are ten countries in the region that have already achieved 80 per cent, or higher, literacy rates and expect to reach 100 per cent by 1990. There are four countries where the rate is between 50-80 per cent. By 1995, they expect to acquire 100 per cent literacy rate. There are only seven countries with a literacy rate below 50 per cent. Most of these countries expect to remove the ignominy of illiteracy by the year 2000. The aggregate literacy rate for the region in 1985 was 63.7 per cent compared with a rate of 53.6 per cent for 1975.

In all this, UNESCO's contribution is obvious.

Though it all started from the early days of UNESCO, a turning point in the advancement of education in this region occurred in 1960. In that year, under UNESCO sponsorship, the famous 'Karachi Plan' was adopted making Universal Primary Education (UPE) a national goal for every country in the region. It declared, in the most unambiguous terms, 'that every country should provide a system of universal, compulsory and free primary education for seven years or more within a period of not more than 20 years' (1960-1980).

The timetable proved a bit too ambitious for some countries, especially for countries such as India, Bangladesh, China, and Pakistan, who together account for more than 75 per cent of this region's illiterate population. The unexpectedly high rate of population growth proved much too heavy for these countries to implement the Karachi Plan within the specified time period.

To implement the Karachi Plan it was realized that governmental decisions at the highest policy levels were needed. Consequently, UNESCO instituted a system of governmental meetings with Ministers of education and economic planning to ensure each national government's commitment to the plan. The meetings, starting from the first in Tokyo in 1962, have been held every few years - Bangkok 1965, Singapore 1972, Colombo 1978 and Bangkok 1985. These periodic meetings not only helped to identify the desired practical measures to implement the Karachi Plan but also became the mechanism through which regional priorities and areas of international and regional co-operation could be identified. The composition of the conference of both the ministries of education and economic planning gave it a multidisciplinary perspective and ensured education being considered as an integral part of a country's development planning process. Each of these regional conferences gave birth to new ideas and new regional programmes to solve the problem of education faced by the countries of the region.

The Tokyo meeting, while endorsing the Karachi Plan, expanded its scope to include not only primary, but also secondary, higher and adult education.

The Bangkok Conference of 1965 produced the so-called 'Asian Model of Educational Development' with the following pur-

poses, first to visualize in quantitative terms the prospect of educational development in Asia up to 1980, second to illustrate the intricate multi-disciplinarity in educational development and third, to draw attention to the important implication of educational development to the overall national progress.

The Singapore Conference of 1972 is perhaps more notable for giving birth to new mechanisms of regional co-operation, especially the Asia and Pacific Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID). This is a co-operative network of educational institutions and bodies, called Associated Centres - 168 according to the last count - devoted to educational innovation for development. Between the period 1978-1985 APEID has carried out 600 activities at regional and national levels involving 11,500 educators in 24 countries of the region.

The Ministers Conference in Colombo, Sri Lanka, is notable for its emphasis on girls' and women's education and higher education. It also recommended the creation of a regional Standing Advisory Committee to meet once every two years to expedite the implementation of the decisions of the ministerial conferences.

The most recent in this series of conferences was held again in Bangkok, in 1985, and can be said to be most noteworthy for approving the Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All by the year 2000 (APPEAL). This programme has three vital components. They are, namely, the eradication of illiteracy, the universalization of primary education and life-long continuing education. The special feature of this programme will be to attract as much extra-budgetary funding for educational activities as possible. The UN funding agencies, Member States and private foundations and philanthropic bodies will be approached to join together with UNESCO in eliminating illiteracy from Asia. APPEAL can be termed as the final phase of implementing the Karachi Plan.

The series of ministerial conferences has been dealt with at some length for they not only show how and when vital decisions were taken but also how the pattern of educational development evolved over time.

The series of ministerial conferences is but only one - albeit the most important one - of the many ways that UNESCO has assisted the development of education in this region. The advisory

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services, the expert missions, the consultants, the supply of equipment, the organizing of training workshops, carrying out research and assisting countries in the formulation of their educational policy and planning are some of the other ways that UNESCO renders its service to the Member States of this region.

In this regard some of UNESCO's regional education programmes need to be mentioned, other than those dealing with Universal Primary Education and Literacy, which have already been dealt with in some detail.

Mention needs to be made of UNESCO's science and technology education programme. This programme is aimed at enhancing the national capacities and broadening the base of, and access to, science and technology education. Activities here concentrated on the innovation of the curricula and development of instructional material. Following a multi-country study covering Australia, China, Japan, Pakistan, Sri Lanka and the USSR, UNESCO launched a project called 'Technology in General Education' in 1981-1983 that helped the development of teaching material inter-linking science, technology and education. To show the inter-relationship between science education and real life needs, UNESCO assisted in the development and inclusion of nutrition education as a part of overall science education.

In the area of population control, UNESCO's distinct contribution was the introduction and popularization of the subject of population education. At the moment 14 countries in Asia and ten in the Pacific have regular population education programmes as an integral part of their overall population control strategy.

Promotion of vocational education and the relationship between education and the world of work forms another important component of UNESCO's work in the Asia-Pacific region.

UNESCO's work in higher education received a significant boost in 1982 when the Regional Co-operation Programme in Higher Education for Development became operational. Sixty institutions and offices of higher education from 15 countries have joined this co-operation programme whose work is carried out by three consortia in the following areas: (i) innovations in higher education; (ii) policy, planning and management in higher education; and (iii) special research and studies in higher education. The consortium on innova-

tion is currently working in four projects, namely distance education, curriculum innovation, staff development and participation of higher education institutions in development. Similar activities are being carried out by two other consortia in co-operation with, and with regard to the needs of, the participating countries.

Educational planning and administration forms another area of UNESCO's work in this region. Mainly focused on research and training, UNESCO has helped train about 600 educational planners and administration between the period of 1978-1984.

In the area of educational facilities development UNESCO's input consists of (i) training; (ii) advisory service; (iii) studies; and (iv) information dissemination. Here UNESCO assists Member States to devise cheap and durable ways of erecting school buildings, publishing books and producing teaching materials.

UNESCO's other activities in the region, in the fields of science, culture, social science, communication and book promotion have not been elaborated on because this bulletin is especially designated to concentrate on the issue of education.

This 40th anniversary commemorative issue attempts to highlight some of the achievements of the arduous struggle that UNESCO and its Member States have carried on to provide education to all its citizens. At the same time the articles in this volume attempt to identify some of the unfinished tasks at hand. Of that, to make an obvious understatement, there are plenty.

Asia still leads the world, with 666 million illiterates living within its boundaries. A tragic aspect of the illiteracy picture is the wastage of the potential of children and youth. Today in our region there are more than 350 million children and youth between the 6-23 years who are out of the reach of schools. This accounts for 60 per cent of the population in this range.

Another aspect is the situation of girls and women. Sixty per cent of adult illiterates are girls and women. Yet, there are some heart-warming trends. Between 1970-1982 girls enrolment rose from 110 million to 153 million at the primary level. Enrolment in the second level for the same period rose from 37 million to 59 million.

Backwardness in education is invariably linked to deprivation and socio-economic underdevelopment. *The poverty map and the*

illiteracy map of the world appear strikingly similar. Typically countries that are illiterate are also the countries where infant mortality rates are high, malnutrition is widespread, diseases are endemic and epidemics are frequent. It is also in these countries that large sections of the population do not have safe drinking water and more than half of their population live below the poverty line. Sometimes countries argue that they have such urgent and dire economic problems that they cannot enjoy the luxury of investing a significant proportion of their meagre GNP in education. The argument, more appropriately, should be the other way around. Given their economic crisis can they enjoy the luxury of **not investing** in education? For post Second World War history clearly shows, and statistics bear it out, that those developing countries which made significant long term investment in education were the ones which broke out of the poverty cycle and achieved sustained and substantial economic growth. However scarce the resources should become, investment in education must be continued. Without educated children, literate farmers and workers and mothers who can read and write, no nation can advance. In today's world the co-relation is unmistakable – **to be able to achieve economic growth as a nation, one must be educated as a nation.**

In commemorating its 40th anniversary and the International Year of Peace an appeal is made to all to rededicate ourselves to the ideals of UNESCO so that we can reinvigorate our work to gain that 'precious pearl' – namely world peace. For without peace the human race faces the threat of total extinction. The hatred that fuels violence, the prejudice that leads to oppression, the ignorance that leads to discrimination, the idea of superiority that leads to chauvinism, **must all give way to a search for knowledge and wisdom**, that will lead to co-operation between nations, mutual respect among the various peoples and a sense of shared cultural heritage that will be magnificent in its diversity and inspiring in its unity.

It is towards that search for knowledge and wisdom that UNESCO, on its 40th anniversary, pledges, once again, its total commitment.

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SECTION ONE

**SOME CURRENT UNESCO ACTIVITIES
IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC**

UNESCO OFFICES IN BANGKOK

Four UNESCO offices are based in Bangkok. They are the Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific (ROEAP; the offices of the Regional Adviser for Culture in Asia and the Pacific (RACAP); and the Regional Adviser for the Social and Human Sciences in Asia and the Pacific (RUSHSAP); and the Office of Public Information in Asia and the Pacific (RIO).



UNESCO ROEAP itself, comprises the following activities: Asia and the Pacific Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID), which is co-ordinated by staff of the Asian Centre of Educational Innovation for Development (ACEID); Educational Advisory Services (EAS) in Higher Education, Literacy and Continuing Education, Technical Education and UNESCO/UNICEF Co-operation; Educational Facilities Development Service (EFDS); Educational Planning and Management Service (EPMS), including statistical services; and Population Education Services (PES). The

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Documentation and Information Service, Publications Unit and Administration Office provide their services to all five UNESCO offices.

As more functions and activities are decentralized to Bangkok by UNESCO headquarters, the somewhat artificial boundaries between one programme area and another are tending to become blurred. This is particularly so in ROEAP, where, for example, the interactions that occur between literacy programmes, educational planning and management, population education and the innovative programmes of APEID, frequently overlap. This requires the contribution and co-operation of several programme specialists for certain combined activities. The details of this trend become clearer on the following pages.

UNESCO – HELPING US TO DISCOVER OURSELVES (RIO)

Public information for many, is public relations; that for many, is advertising; which in its turn may mean for many to be pure image making. And as images go, they may be quite removed from the reality. But public information may also mean factual accounting of what is going on. Something akin to public education, consciousness building, making the public aware of certain vital issues that affect them and letting them know what is happening in these areas. It is in the latter sense that UNESCO views its own public information tasks.

To understand the objectives and functions of UNESCO's public information service, it is necessary to understand the objectives and functions of UNESCO itself. This statement may not be very original, but is nonetheless crucial for the understanding of UNESCO's information activities.

Very simply, for UNESCO, public information is to tell the world what UNESCO does. But what does UNESCO do?

It helps countries to build schools, train teachers, produce educational materials, print textbooks, develop curricula, formulate educational policies, plan short and long term educational strategies. It restores and preserves cultural monuments, rare manuscripts, various forms of music and plays, and translates works of exceptional literary quality from national to international languages. It brings together scientists of the world to look into such common problems facing mankind as environment, vegetation, water and marine life, and discover common solutions. It brings together social scientists to delve into fundamental issues of nation building and advancing further the gains of human rights and fundamental freedoms. It assists in building communication infrastructures, provides professional training and works for a greater international flow of information between all countries and regions.

The above list is large, varied and quite impressive. But frankly, it is quite **besides the point**. While it is true that UNESCO spends

3/One

all its resources and energies to do whatever is mentioned earlier, it does so, not as an end in itself, but only as a means to achieve far greater and fundamental ends as specified by its Constitution. And it is these ends that need to be understood well if the work of UNESCO's public information services is to be appreciated in any real sense.

UNESCO's fundamental aim is to break down the barriers of prejudice and ignorance and improve the knowledge of each other's cultures and ways of life so that we begin to realize that humanity, however divided geographically, racially, culturally, linguistically and otherwise, are firmly united in the basic desire for peace, friendship, development and quality of life. UNESCO's Constitution makes a radical departure from the conventional approach to international relations when it firmly proclaims to the world that a simple agreement between governments or understanding between States cannot guarantee stable and long-term peace. If peace is to be durable, a people to people relationship has to be developed going far beyond the limited coterie of a government and its functionaries. This people-to-people relationship will bring about a world-wide intellectual and moral solidarity which will act, not only as a guarantor of peace but also as a bulwark against all tendencies that lead to decisiveness and confrontation.

Perhaps an apt description of UNESCO's work, which may help to clarify the functions of the information service, was given by the famous American political scientist, Rober MacIver. During the deliberations on the establishment of the organization, he said the task of UNESCO was to lay the scientific foundations for the interpretation of people to people. The challenge therefore, is to interpret one people to another so that through greater knowledge there is greater international understanding and co-operation.

Hence we need education to open up and enrich our minds, science to understand our physical surroundings, social science to delve in the process of societal change, culture to understand what we are and communication to share it all. All this we need — meaning UNESCO, we need — to interpret one people to another.

It is the task of UNESCO's public information services to bring about a deeper appreciation and wider public knowledge of this complex and interwoven process of **discovery of ourselves by ourselves** which is what UNESCO fundamentally aims to achieve.

As can be expected under the circumstances, UNESCO takes a much wider view of public information work than is generally attributed to it. For this purpose UNESCO has created an integrated secretariat body entitled the Sector of External Relations. This sector views public information in the widest sense of the term and includes the following tasks:

- a) Public information through the mass media;
- b) Public information through professional bodies; and
- c) Public information through the National Commissions and UNESCO Associations and Clubs.

In its relations with the mass media, UNESCO's information service distributes various printed materials, sends out press releases, feature articles, organizes radio and television programmes and coverage of sports events. Occasional tours by journalists to special projects are also organized. However, while great emphasis is laid upon the coverage of the event itself, a serious attempt is simultaneously made to inculcate a genuine interest of the media professionals in the substantive issues themselves.

For example, while inviting media coverage of a project, say on education or culture, attention is drawn not only on the project itself or to UNESCO's role in it, but also to the more fundamental issue of the role of education and culture in a nation's life. The idea is that these issues should and must be covered as a vital component of a nation's growth and not merely because UNESCO has done some useful work and brought it to the media's attention.

The international and regional professional organizations are the life blood of the organization. After the Member States, it is through them that UNESCO implements its programmes and informs the intellectual community of its activities. It is with them as the pivot, that UNESCO tries to build, the 'intellectual and moral solidarity of mankind' that strengthens the bond of co-operation among nations.

The National Commissions and UNESCO Clubs and Associations are the channels of direct link with the intellectual community and the general public in the Member States. The National Commission brings together a large group of country-level professional bodies and prominent individuals who are then linked with UNESCO's programmes in the country and abroad. The UNESCO

Unesco in Asia and the Pacific

Clubs and Associations bring together members of the general public who believe in the ideals of UNESCO and would like to participate in the creation of, what Archibald MacLeish, one of the co-authors of the UNESCO Constitution, called 'a climate of opinion which will make war impossible'.

True to its original purpose UNESCO has, over the last 40 years, become a meeting ground for divergent cultures, philosophies, ideologies, religious beliefs and social systems. It is a place where humanity, at its sublime best, meets, exchanges experiences and resolves conflicts through a process of collective action arrived at by consensus.

UNESCO today has become synonymous with a process of dialogue which has resulted in nations, holding opposing ideological views, working together in promoting mutual co-operation in the educational, scientific and cultural fields. As the threat of a nuclear holocaust looms ever closer, this 'centre' of dialogue and mutual 'discovery' must be preserved and made more secure.

For this purpose it is most essential that a greater number of people come to know how UNESCO, by bringing this diverse humanity together, is pushing back the dark clouds of ignorance and prejudice. How, by bringing scientists, artists and intellectuals together from all ideological and cultural groups, UNESCO is bringing about genuine mutual co-operation. It is the responsibility of the public information service to bring this to the public's knowledge.

In the address to the 12th Conference of International Non-Governmental Organizations, held in May 1986, in Paris, the Director-General of UNESCO, Mr. Amadou Mahtar M'Bow aptly described the impact of the organization's work. He said UNESCO's work during the last 40 years shows 'that co-operation must take precedence over confrontation, just as right must prevail over might. When everyone is pitted against each other, . . . not only selfishness and inequality triumphs but, in the final analysis, knowledge is sacrificed to the principles and objectives of war'.

This is what UNESCO, through all its programmes and activities including those concerning public information, is working ceaselessly to prevent.

EDUCATION: ROEAP

Literacy: An old challenge for a new decade

The Asia and Pacific region is the home of more than 650 million illiterates, the highest concentration of illiterates anywhere in the world. Without a literate population, progress in development may always remain a distant dream. The third United Nations' Development Decade has declared the provision of education to all and the eradication of illiteracy as its main purpose. The Member States of UNESCO's Asia and Pacific region are becoming increasingly aware of the detriments of illiteracy. All have set a target date for the complete eradication of illiteracy by 2000.

The magnitude of the problem, coupled with the seriousness of the time constraints gives an unusually rare sense of urgency to the task. Realizing that illiteracy eradication is one of the greatest challenges of our time, UNESCO has given the utmost priority to this struggle.

Planning and management of literacy programmes. Successful illiteracy eradication lies in effective planning and management. UNESCO ROEAP has been a close partner in the planning activities for literacy/adult education of several member countries. Concurrently, ROEAP has been involved in the planning and management of literacy/adult education through different modalities. Periodical consultations among the leaders, policy makers, planners and administrators are held with ROEAP support in order to help Member States develop their literacy plans and sustain their interest in and commitment to the implementation of literacy programmes.

Besides the joint consultation, ROEAP promotes the exchange of experience among the Member States through study visits, and attachment programmes of experts and regional or sub-regional training in the spirit of technical co-operation among developing countries (TCDC) of the United Nations System.

Aware of the time constraint, ROEAP has undertaken to assist the Member States at the regional and national levels, simultaneously.

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At the regional level, training workshops have been organized to train leading policy makers and key literacy personnel in planning and management and other areas related to its development.

Training of literacy personnel. At the request of the member countries, ROEAP holds annual regional training workshops for key policy making literacy personnel. In 1985, for example, a Regional Training Workshop in Literacy was held in New Delhi, India. Participants were exposed to the model(s) of training designs for literacy training at the national or sub-national level. They had the opportunity to visit field projects and tried their hand at designing training programmes for three types of literacy personnel.

Although these regional training workshops could each accommodate only a relatively small number of participants, their multiplier effect has been strongly felt when the participants returned to conduct follow-up activities in their own countries. These activities take a variety of forms. As far as possible, ROEAP responds to the Member States' request to be involved in the follow up activities through either financial and/or technical support. It is hoped that the impact of these activities will filter through to the grass roots level. Between 1980 and the present time, more than 6,100 national personnel have been trained in one or more aspects of literacy planning and programme implementation by programmes that are supported by UNESCO. The Regional Office, conscious of the scarcity of training materials for literacy personnel, develops prototype training materials based on the collective experience of the participants, guided by the experts in literacy.

These training materials are used as background materials for training, for information on the experiences of the participating Member States and as exemplary materials. Today, the materials continue to be requested by Member States and non-governmental agencies and scholars interested in literacy and adult education.

Literacy materials development. Though training is ROEAP's major activity in its literacy programme, personnel development or institution building is only one aspect of planning and management of such a programme. In order to guarantee the permanent impact of literacy among neo-literates, ROEAP is actively involved in assisting the Member States in their post literacy activities, including the provision of financial and/or technical assistance in the organization

of regional training workshops jointly with the Asian Cultural Centre for UNESCO (ACCU). At these workshops, regional experiences are consolidated to form the baseline data in formulating a manual for neo-literate materials development and in producing a set of Asian Joint Production (AJP) materials. The AJP materials are prototype materials intended to be adapted for use in each respective country. For example, in 1985, ROEAP financially supported the printing of AJP materials in Indonesia as well as provided an advisory service to Malaysia for its national training workshop in post-literacy materials development. In the case of Malaysia such a series of workshops at the national, sub-national, and district levels have been systematically planned. This year, two sub-national workshops are benefiting from UNESCO's technical support for post-literacy materials development in the heartland of Malaysia's illiterates — Sabah and Sarawak in East Malaysia. Already, the country has been able to identify a group of key personnel who are well on their way to becoming self-reliant in their own training in post-literacy development, and ROEAP will withdraw its involvement in post-literacy development as Malaysia demonstrates its self-reliance in the area of post-literacy materials development. It is noteworthy that ROEAP emphasizes the imparting of understanding of the process as well as the quality of the products. To illustrate, the recent workshops in Sarawak produced 21 functional literacy materials while simultaneously raising the participants' competence and confidence in materials development.

UNESCO involvement varies in form according to the specific conditions and needs of the countries. For example, in 1985, ROEAP airfreighted printing paper for literacy books being printed in Afghanistan.

Another activity undertaken by ROEAP in creating a literate environment for neo-literates is by promoting village reading centres, reading rooms, and rural libraries, among others. Realizing the Member States appreciation of the indispensable value of reading centres in sustaining neo-literates' literacy skills, ROEAP also encourages the intercountry exchanges of experiences in this area by facilitating study visits of key literacy personnel. Thailand, for example, has offered its well-established network of village reading centres for the visits of literacy personnel from India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Pakistan and Sri Lanka.

Literacy in development for women. Some 60 per cent of the illiterate population are women. To tackle the illiteracy problem effectively is to focus efforts on the female illiterates. Literate women are more likely to succeed in individual development than illiterate ones. They are, therefore, potential contributors to their country's social as well as economic development. Conscious of the member countries recognition of the significant role women can play in development, ROEAP, organized a Regional Workshop for those in charge of Women's Education in Rural Development in 1982. The workshop put particular emphases on the following issues:

1. Schooling and non-formal education for girls and women;
2. Educational components in family welfare;
3. Preparing women for income generating activities; and
4. Women's participation in development.

Since this workshop, numerous national follow-up activities have been organized with ROEAP support to meet development needs of women. For example, UNESCO has co-operated with the Government of India in conducting an Integrated Pilot Project on Literacy Instruction and Civic Awareness in Chinhat and Bakshi-ka-Talab, Lucknow District and Uttar Pradesh where the literacy rate among women is as low as 11 per cent. The outcomes of this project will shed light on the implementation of similar projects for women within India and in other parts of the region. In the same manner, ROEAP is planning a similar pilot project emphasizing vocational skills and continuing education to be conducted in another country in the region. In 1985-1986 UNESCO supported a rural development project for women in Antique and Bicol in the Philippines. Known as 'Project Learn', the project has the following as its tenets:

1. Making literacy functional in everyday activities;
2. Increasing each family's earning capacity;
3. Promoting planned parenthood resulting in a happy family life;
4. Promoting the protection of environment; and
5. Providing the young people with proper nourishment, both physically and intellectually.

Approximately 550 rural women in Camarines Sur and Antique were trained to conduct a more productive and fulfilling life. These women (17-35 years) come from low-income families. They

were trained by women educators who had attended a previous workshop specializing in the various fields of Project LEARN.

In addition to direct involvement in literacy activities for women, UNESCO also offers technical co-operation with other United Nations agencies, notably UNICEF. This year, alone, ROEAP has given technical inputs to literacy programmes for women in Kampuchea and in Burma through UNICEF.

The Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL). Clearly the struggle against mass illiteracy has been started in this century. Some programmes have met with spectacular success while others need a newer, fresher approach to give the task the necessary momentum. One fact has emerged from this experience. Illiteracy eradication and provision of primary education are necessarily complementary — two sides of the same coin. One cannot succeed without the other. Literate mothers are more likely and capable of supporting their children's education. Similarly, primary school children would not grow up to add to the rank of illiterates.

Work in the field of literacy and adult education, population education, environment education, educational planning and management, and educational facilities, carried out by UNESCO, through ROEAP, has contributed in various ways towards the solution of the problems faced.

A major thrust to these efforts was provided with the inauguration, in 1975, of the Asia and the Pacific Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID). One of the high priority areas of APEID (1982-1986) related to the universalization of primary education. It focused on the innovations and reforms needed to provide access to education at the first level by both formal and non-formal means. Similarly, since 1977 UNESCO ROEAP has been undertaking activities in the field of literacy. These include (i) studies on the problem of illiteracy, and how it may be eradicated; (ii) assistance to Member States in preparing national literacy plans and programmes; (iii) training national personnel in coping with illiteracy problems; and (iv) publishing and supplying case studies and training materials.

In response to the Member States' request, first at the Fifth Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning in Asia and the Pacific, then at the 23rd Session

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of General Conference and again at the Programme Development Meeting in May 1986, UNESCO launched a major programme entitled the Asian-Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL).

The programme acknowledges the rich cultural heritage of the region. The existence of indigenous languages and the long literary tradition of many of them is another unique feature. There is also a renewed assertion of cultural identity by the nation-states.

APPEAL is based on the premise that education is a fundamental human right, and that it is a critical means for development. Education is regarded as a subsystem of the wider society, having interfaces with the economic, political, social and cultural domains; so actions should be planned taking into account all these domains.

Objectives of APPEAL. The objectives of APPEAL are based on Resolution 10 of MINEDAP V, which would *inter alia* promote and strengthen mutual co-operation among Member States in the region to fulfil their resolve to:

1. Continue and intensify their efforts to eradicate illiteracy and to achieve universal primary education before the year 2000.
2. Create appropriate infrastructures for integrated and effective planning, management, research and development for literacy, primary education and continuing education, with special emphasis on women and disadvantaged population groups.
3. Mobilize human, material and financial resources, as well as encourage community participation and utilization of local resources.
4. Give special attention to raising the level of learning achievements of pupils through curriculum renewal, training of personnel, and research, etc.
5. Promote and strengthen continuing education, especially for out-of-school children and youth.

The principles guiding the actions of APPEAL are based on the:

1. Mobilization of existing national and regional structures, within the education sector and outside it;

2. Linking of quantitative expansion and quality improvement and renewal;
3. Special attention given to population groups such as women, primary school children in poor environments, out-of-school and early drop-out youth, working children, people living in remote areas.

APPEAL, therefore, encompasses three components, two of which have been earlier mentioned — illiteracy eradication and universalization of primary education. The third component is continuing education, including post-literacy activities and the inculcation of reading/learning habits. This is the first time a major regional programme of UNESCO has ventured to include this component. The strength of APPEAL may well lie in continuing education, as this is the component that will link and strengthen the first two components simultaneously.

Educational Planning, Management and Statistics

The past three decades have witnessed the emergence and gradual development of educational planning as a new field of specialization and a modality to make educational investments and activities more rational and effective. Beginning with formulation of education plans, Member States initiated formal training in educational planning. Most of the countries now have university level degree programmes in educational administration and provisions for in-service training in educational planning and administration.

These efforts have so far been mostly focused on macro-planning or national planning. Attention to micro-level planning and decentralization of planning in education is a very recent phenomenon. As the result of such re-orientation many development and training programmes are underway to bring the benefit of educational planning to the more micro- and operational levels in educational systems.

Another fast developing area is modernization and computerization of educational management information systems. There seems to be a particular interest and efforts in introducing mini-computers in information system management. These two activities, namely, micro-level planning and computerized information systems are the priority areas in educational administration in Asia and the Pacific.

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The greatest problem facing the countries is the spiralling cost of education. The population explosion, expansion and democratization of education, and technological developments, have created demands for education far in excess of resources available to governments. This problem has given rise to a new movement referred to as 'privatization' or 'reprivatization' of education. There is no doubt the whole financial system of education needs to be based on a new resource mobilization and community participation radically different from the more classical pattern of direct financing and management by government.

In the field of management of education, both efficiency and effectiveness are moving into the spotlight. The traditional methods of inspection and supervision are becoming obsolete. Instead, self-evaluation and participative management approaches are being introduced. This is the process of transferring the responsibility of management to the lowest level and making educational institutions and personnel accountable to more local and community level authorities. This movement is developing parallel to decentralization in planning.

An innovative approach in management of schools and school systems is inter-institutional networking which makes a group of schools together as the unitary system rather than a single school. This development while still in its infancy has great potential in revolutionizing the management system of education. A number of experimental approaches are being tried such as school clusters, school complexes, school zones and the like. This is pooling all resources available in a small geographical area into one unitary system instead of a number of independent schools and institutions. At the same time more and more responsibilities and authorities are delegated to these fledgling 'multi-campus school systems'.

The same general tendency of decentralization and localization of education is shifting the school more and more into a community centre. School, community and homes are becoming more integrated. Schools are becoming community learning centres. As a result the integrated multi-sectoral approach to educational management is becoming a reality. This movement has certain consequences. One such problem is the non-educational functions demanded of educational personnel who are called upon to render a variety of services to the community. Such a demand creates management

problems in terms of line of supervision and accountability. Schools and school personnel are becoming accountable to more than one public agency.

The change in the public-service delivery system and the pivotal role of the school and educational personnel in such a change require a management pattern drastically different from single service delivery management. Lifelong education, distance learning, open systems, and modern technologies have increasingly added to the number and demands of clientele for educational institutions. Schools, being required to meet the educational demands of people of all ages and all levels, are turning into general learning centres. Educational personnel are also becoming community development agents. More educated parents are absorbing some of the teaching and tutoring functions of the schools and share the teaching work. There is a flow of transfer of educational activity from school to home and a transfer of other services into the schools. These tendencies and movements have far-reaching impacts on the planning and management of education.

The challenge of educational management during the remainder of the twentieth century is devising new and flexible systems and procedures, training educational administrators for managing the fast changes happening in education, and designing a new system or systems which could benefit from the new approaches, advances and changes in education at the same time as they facilitate and support such changes.

The socio-political awakening, increasing level of education and maturity of the masses in the region now add to the public demands on educational planners and exert increasing pressures on the already overburdened education officers. A more educated public diminishes the age-old status of the teacher in the community. Such a reduction in social prestige and influence makes the job less attractive and calls for incentives other than social status. The signs of heavy brain-drain in the education system is now quite evident. It is no more a priority choice to become a teacher. Rebuilding the non-material incentive systems and strengthening and increasing material incentives to re-attract the best talents to this vital social institution, education, is yet another challenge to educational planners and managers.

Last but by no means least are the planning and management demands for further development and maintenance of quality in both physical as well as pedagogical assets in the system.

All these elements, pressures, movements and tendencies have forced an increasing number of Member States to look for new policies and new organizational systems in education. A number of Member States in Asia have undertaken such revisions, innovations and modernization measures in their education system.

Making educational buildings safe

Asia is a disaster prone region — earthquakes, cyclones (or typhoons), land slides, floods, collapsing buildings are in the headlines nearly every week. Educational buildings play a peculiar role in this scenario of disaster: a well designed school which is strongly constructed may become a refuge and save lives, while a poor building may be a death-trap sprung by a high wind, an earth tremor or heavy rain.

UNESCO's current programme places stress on the need for educational buildings to be safe places for children. This is being developed by ROEAP through studies, training, field experience and documentation. Two training courses have recently been completed where participants from ten countries have been instructed on how to design and build cyclone-proof schools, and perhaps more important, how to upgrade existing buildings so that they too can withstand such forces.

Closely related to the problem of cyclones is that of earthquakes. UNESCO has long made use of research data on earthquake resistant design in the advisory services which have been given to the earthquake affected countries of the region and has supported a research project in this area. This collected information — covering both research and experience — is now being compiled into a book. This publication should help government officials to introduce these earthquake resistance measures into the designs of their schools, or, as with cyclone-proofing, the reinforcement of existing structures.

A related study — still in its early stages — deals with the general issue of safety in educational buildings and furniture. This will provide designers with a detailed check-list of points to be kept in mind. The building codes vary throughout the region — both in the

way they are conceived and in the way they are enforced. This study aims, therefore, to provoke designers to 'think safety' when designing buildings or furniture and to recognize the importance of respecting codes where they do exist or, if there are no local codes, of identifying and applying relevant elements from other codes.

Educational buildings which reflect developments in education.

As country after country achieves or approaches the goal of providing universal primary education it can be assumed their school building needs are being met. This has proven to be only partly true. Countries which have managed to place a primary school within reach of virtually every village, are now embarking on new ventures of improving educational quality. This has major consequences for educational building design: additional classrooms may need to be added in order to reduce overcrowding; libraries need to be introduced; to promote individualized learning, playground equipment built to promote balanced physical development. This situation has opened a new subject area — that of school improvement. UNESCO, Bangkok has worked actively in co-operation with UNICEF and the World Bank on projects in Bangladesh, Burma and Nepal to improve thousands of schools. A study on how primary schools in Thailand could be improved has also been carried out.

As various educational reforms are adopted, renewed attention is being placed on other educational levels. Most notably, the early childhood or pre-school level, has come into increasing importance in the past few years. One study has been completed and widely distributed which gives guidance on the design of pre-school centres. A companion study is underway on the design of playground equipment which will contribute to physical development and cognitive learning of very young children. A field study in Thailand which was a joint effort between national officials, UNICEF and UNESCO, has contributed very substantially to the knowledge in this area.

Other educational levels, for which further research is required, are those of technical and teacher education. Experience gained from the execution of large construction projects in Viet Nam, Nepal and Bhutan have all contributed experience to the design of teacher training institutes and this data is now available in published form. Evaluation of a technical education project in Indonesia, the design and construction of a polytechnic for women in Bangladesh, and preparation of a master plan for a national polytechnique institute

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in Lao People's Democratic Republic are all contributing toward the accumulation of materials which can eventually be published.

Prototype development. An important new dimension to UNESCO's work in educational building is the growing use of prototypes. Thanks to assistance from AGFUND, it is now possible for UNESCO to give assistance to Member States for the construction of prototype buildings or furniture lines. The funds provided to the Member States are intended to work as 'seed money' as once the prototypes have been constructed and evaluated and new designs prepared, governments are expected to follow-up with their own massive investments. This approach is, so far, showing substantial promise. Not only does it provoke innovative thinking but as the follow-up of a successful prototype activity is the training of national personnel it is contributing to the professional development of national staff.

Higher education

In recent years, ROEAP has been involved in many substantive activities in higher education in Asia and the Pacific. A network of 70 universities, research institutions, grants commissions and other higher education institutions have been set up in 17 countries within the framework of the UNESCO-sponsored Regional Co-operative Programme in Higher Education for Development in Asia and the Pacific. The programme activities which are, in the main, developed and carried out by the participating institutions, embrace innovations in higher education; policy planning and management of higher education; and special research studies in higher education. The participating institutions have formed into three consortia corresponding to the above programme areas. The programme draws its funding support from the UNESCO Regular Budget and UNDP/UNESCO Project RAS/81/013.

The broad objectives of the regional programme are to: (1) promote inter-country exchange of experiences and expertise in innovative developments in higher education; (2) contribute to the development and application of knowledge and techniques in the field of policy, planning and management; (3) contribute through special research studies to knowledge and understanding of the problems and emerging roles of higher education; and (4) facilitate inter-country exchange of information and documentation.

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The emphasis of the programme has been on the training of higher education personnel, development of training materials, carrying out research studies, and strengthening documentation and information service.

Distance education and Open University structure. In the field of distance education, particularly in the context of the 'open university', three major regional and six national training activities have been organized during the last four years. More than 200 key persons from countries in this region have participated in one or more of these activities. The workshops have also produced some significant training materials.

The first such activity was the inter-country study visit-cum-mobile workshop which took place in Thailand and Australia in 1983. A regional training workshop on the development of distance education instructional materials development was organized at Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University, Thailand in 1985. This was followed by another regional training workshop on the development, use and evaluation of distance education broadcast materials held at Allama Iqbal Open University, Pakistan in 1986. Six national training workshops on distance education materials development have also been organized in Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Papua New Guinea, Viet Nam and Sri Lanka. Six issues of the distance education newsletter 'Never too far' have been published and two inventories on distance education institutions at the higher education level in Asia and the Pacific have been produced.

Planning and management. In the last two years, two regional symposia and a number of national training workshops related to the planning and management of higher education have taken place. The first regional symposium attended by senior administrators was held in India in 1985. The theme was equity, excellence and efficiency in higher education. The second symposium held in Bangladesh in 1986 addressed itself to the issues related to long-term planning of higher education. A series of national training workshops on examination reform, management of resources, curriculum renewal in the context of community needs, and planning of universities are also taking place.

Academic staff development. A regional workshop for key persons in academic staff development was organized in Australia

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in 1984. The workshop, attended by senior university professors, produced a report suggesting guidelines and framework for strengthening programmes for professional development of academic staff in the universities. A paper documenting pedagogical training at the post-secondary level in the Asia-Pacific region has been prepared. This will be followed by a more detailed inventory which is now being compiled.

Research studies. A series of important inter-country research studies on critical issues related to higher education have been undertaken. The first of these is the study on 'participation of higher education institutions in national development' undertaken in Bangladesh, India, Philippines and Thailand within a broad research framework. Another inter-country study on 'equity, quality and cost in higher education' is under way in Australia, India and the Republic of Korea. The third inter-country study on 'participation of women in higher education' has been initiated in China, Nepal, Pakistan and Philippines. A fourth study on the contribution of higher agricultural education to rural development in Asia and the Pacific has also been completed. Lastly, national case studies on higher education planning in 11 countries are nearing completion. All the studies are planned for publication in 1987.

Documentation and information. In addition to others that have been mentioned earlier, a comprehensive bibliography on higher education in Bangladesh, China, India and the Republic of Korea has been computerized. A number of handbooks are under preparation. Activities will continue to further strengthen and expand computer-based information and documentation services at ROEAP.

Future prospect of the regional co-operative programme. The regional programme of higher education of ROEAP is relatively new compared to the other regional programmes of ROEAP. Its effective implementation began in 1983, although preparatory actions were undertaken in 1981. The programme was reviewed by a Regional Review Workshop in late 1985. The workshop indicated the future direction and substantive aspects of the programmes which include distance education and open university; problem-centred applied research; management of resources; and women's participation in higher education. UNDP's assistance is also expected for the continuation of the programme.

Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education in Asia and the Pacific. UNESCO's programmes in support of higher education in the region are wide ranging and some of them have far reaching consequences. One such significant development has been the adoption of the Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education in Asia and the Pacific. The Convention was adopted in the International Conference of States that took place in Bangkok in 1983 under the auspices of UNESCO. The convention has now been ratified by three Member States. It was the fifth and final regional convention. Similar conventions in most other regions have already been ratified and these form a prelude to the adoption of a world convention.

The conventions are geared towards the increased mobility of staff and students in higher education and promoting adoption of standards and mutual recognition of studies and diplomas. Commenting on the importance these conventions at the inaugural session of the International Conference of States in Bangkok, the Director-General of UNESCO stressed that, 'the conventions gave expression to a genuine desire for understanding, co-operation and peace which existed in all regions of the world, transcending all differences and surmounting all difficulties'.

UNESCO in action in the field of education and the world of work

UNESCO's Medium Term Plan (1984-1989) approaches the problem of the relationship between education and the world of work from three distinct but mutually complementary standpoints:

- i) the place of work within educational activities;
- ii) the relationship between education and employment; and
- iii) the development of technical and vocational education.

The objectives and principles of action of this programme, support the efforts of Member States in: (a) improving at all levels of education the attitudes of young people towards productive work and socially useful productive activities; (b) providing a better preparation for working life; and (c) developing and improving technical and vocational education.

In terms of the provisions of the Medium Term Plan, UNESCO ROEAP in co-operation with leading institutions and scholars in the

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Member States has undertaken a series of ten case studies on the policies, planning and administration of technical and vocational education. The studies provide a comparative picture of the development of technical and vocational education and aim at improvement of dissemination of the results of experiments and innovations in this important field of education in the region.

Regional workshops have emphasized qualitative improvement of technical and vocational education and the improvement of national educational and vocational guidance for girls and women.

UNESCO has also assisted Member States train key people in specific areas of technical and vocational education through mobile training team operations. Six countries have already participated. The specific fields which each country selected for in-country training were as follows: China: (a) Vocationalization of general education, and (b) Agricultural education and vocational training; India: Business and commercial education; Philippines: Development of software for technical teacher education; Pakistan: Curriculum development and preparation of instructional materials and books for technical education; Socialist Republic of Viet Nam: Curriculum development and instructional material/audio visual aids preparation for education in mechanical and agro-mechanization technologies; Nepal: Development of curriculum and instructional aids for technical and vocational education. UNESCO also provided resource persons to the countries to help the national faculty plan and conduct these training courses.

In addition, UNESCO has assisted Member States in the region identify, formulate, process and execute operational projects in the field of technical and vocational education.

Some of the important projects being executed by UNESCO ROEAP include:

- a) Development of a National Technical Teacher Training College, 17 polytechnics and three engineering colleges in Bangladesh under the funding support of the World Bank/ International Development Agency, and UNDP;
- b) Establishment of a Mahila (Women) Polytechnic in Bangladesh under Saudi Fund-in-Trust;
- c) Development and establishment of a National Polytechnic

Current activities

Institute in Lao People's Democratic Republic under the funding support of WorldBank/IDA and UNDP;

- d) Improvement of Secondary Teacher Training in Lao People's Democratic Republic under the funding support of UNDP;
- e) Development of Technician Training in Burma under the funding support of UNDP; and
- f) Development of Practical Skill Training Programmes in Islamic Senior Secondary Schools/Madrasah Aliyah in Indonesia through the funding support of UNDP (being processed).

During the current biennium UNESCO ROEAP will continue to assist the Member States in (a) the improvement of their existing infrastructures for technical and vocational education; (b) the training of their key personnel for undertaking reforms of technical and vocational education; (c) providing expert advisory services on request; and (d) the identification, formulation, processing and execution of operational projects in the field of education and the world of work upon request by the Member States and funding agencies.

APEID activities in education and work

During APEID's third cycle Vocational and Technical Education was renamed Education and Work.

Between 1982 and 1986 a number of APEID activities have concentrated on introducing work experience and vocational subjects as an integral part of general secondary education. This originated from a Regional Planning Panel Meeting, held in 1982 in Bangkok. It gave new directions for restructuring the general education curricula so as to incorporate vocational guidance and counselling, work-oriented activities and various vocational subjects in the general education schools. As a follow-up of the Regional Planning Panel Meeting, a series of inter-country, inter-project study visits was organized, followed by undertaking of national studies on work as an integral part of general education. These national studies made reviews of policies, plans and emerging trends relating to work experience within the context of general education; made in-depth analyses of some vocational programmes implemented in the course

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of general education; and described selected pilot projects in the countries with innovative experiences in linking general education to the world of work.

Another major outcome was the preparation of nine national studies on the content of general education determined by the requirements for further occupational training and re-training, which would facilitate young unemployed graduates of the general education stream, as well as early school leavers and drop-outs, to receive appropriate occupational training or re-training leading to gainful employment or self-employment and entrepreneurship.

Main thrusts for the fourth programming cycle of APEID (1987-1991). Linking education to the world of work will continue to be one of the major concerns during the fourth programming cycle of APEID. The activities in this area will be focused on introducing work as an integral part of general education, aiming at a harmonious personality development by exposing pupils not only to scholastic areas for intellectual development, but also to situations where they have opportunities to work with their hands, use tools, develop some basic productive skills and positive attitudes towards manual labour. The major efforts during the next cycle of APEID in this particular area will be to provide school children with opportunities to participate in social and economic activities inside and outside the classroom, enabling them to understand scientific principles and processes involved in different types of work which are found in the physical and social environment. The major expected outcome will not confine itself only to just learning to do work; it should be work education, incorporating also, besides acquisition of employable skills, concrete forms of income-generating activities; socially useful productive work which is closely linked with local community development; and inculcating work ethics, proper work habits and discipline, pride in one's achievements, and respect for other's work.

The major outcomes during the next cycle period will include new approaches to introducing work as an integral part of general education, both at the primary and secondary level of education so as to enhance its relevance for all students and link it to real-life situations and problems; 'competencies-based' teaching training for handling the new work-oriented curricula; development of inter-disciplinary teaching/learning materials; training of key personnel

for out-of-school work activities; and development of physical facilities and training materials for implementing work experience in and out of school.

In the area of Vocational and Technical Education the emphasis of the UNESCO/APEID activities will be:

- a) On improvements of methods, forms and structures of vocational and technical education; and
- b) On adapting of the curricula and the syllabuses for various specific technical subjects according to the changing needs of industrial/agricultural enterprises, implementing newly emerging technologies and technological changes in the production process.

Educational technology — stressing mass media and low-cost instructional materials

The use of educational technology by teachers, along with the development of low-cost instructional materials, was strongly emphasized as an interdisciplinary area of innovation in the first cycle of APEID. This led to a series of training workshops resulting in the publication of three volumes of inventories titled: *Low cost educational materials: how to make, how to use, how to adapt*. These publications rapidly gained vast popularity and became very useful tools for many teachers and teacher-educators. Some of them have been translated in national languages, enriching the national inventories on low-cost educational materials developed during this period.

During the third cycle of APEID a number of activities concentrated on the development of multi-media kits, designed to solve specific problems of teaching in commonly identified problem areas, such as teaching in one-teacher schools; large classes; and multi-cultural and minority classes. Another APEID activity was a series of regional and national activities on developing distance education systems and structures, including correspondence education, educational broadcasting and the use of satellite technology for educational purposes.

As in all education programmes, distance education methods of operation reflected various prevailing conditions in particular countries. For example, wherever books were not available in the

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national language, other means are being provided to facilitate distance learning. Distance education has had particular potential for non-formal education which is playing an increasingly important and visible role in meeting the needs of drop-outs, out-of-school youth and illiterate adults.

A number of activities during this period focused on the development, production and dissemination of primary level textbooks and other printed teaching/learning materials, emphasizing cost effectiveness.

A variety of regional and national activities resulted in revised curricula, improved textbooks and reading materials, particularly for primary education; all developed in national languages. Fiji, Samoa and Tonga have organized national training workshops to promote small scale production of textbooks and other printed teaching/learning materials.

The recent trends in developing information and communication technologies, which made a great impact on the educational process have been emphasized specifically during the third programming cycle of APEID through organizing the Third Asian Seminar on Educational Technology, and an Experts Planning Panel Meeting, both devoted to the promotion of the use of computers in education in educational administration and planning and in computer-aided instruction. The latter resulted in the publication entitled *Developing computer use in education — guidelines, trends and issues*.

The new thrusts for future activities in this area are: specific provision for the application of new technologies in education and utilization of information technology for improving the quality and efficiency of educational systems in the countries of the region. It may be summarized that the role of educational technology in education as a means as well as a subject of study, is an emerging area in all Member States of Asia and the Pacific, which will encourage further innovations to promote the use and application of information and communication technologies, including the use of computers as an aid to instruction.

Population education

Towards renovating formal education. Population education is perceived by educators and teachers as an innovation in that

instructional materials have a wide knowledge base, which are interdisciplinary in orientation and are based on multi-disciplinary research. As such, population content has been used to enrich relevant school subjects. Since population education is aimed at rational and responsible attitudes towards population problems which bristle with value-laden issues, new teaching/learning methodologies have emerged (e.g. problem solving/inquiry/discovery and values clarification). By virtue of the fact that population education is integrated in existing school subjects, it has become inevitable that its innovatory impact has also happened in other school subjects.

Catalyst for multi-sectoral collaboration. In many countries, different ministries and/or organizations are concerned with enhancement of the quality of life. Very often, though, the efforts of these ministries and organizations are not co-ordinated. Since population education acquires more relevance when interwoven into different non-formal education and development programmes, UNESCO deemed it necessary to initiate planning and development meetings at the national level, not only to facilitate the integration of population education in the programmes of different ministries and/or organizations, but also to serve as a catalyst in fostering collaborative efforts as well as to avoid unnecessary duplication of efforts of all concerned towards a common goal — the improvement of people's quality of life.

Participatory methodology. In non-formal population education, one invariably deals with out-of-school youth and adults who would actively participate in the programme only if they feel it helps them with problems that directly concern them. In view of this, the Regional Team has widely used participatory methodology in training field workers, called field operational seminars. The main thrust of this training modality consists of participatory activities in a rural community where trainees help the target audience identify problems and needs in the context of their socio-cultural and geographic settings. The population-related problems obstructing development efforts are identified through observations, questionnaires and interviews. The priority population-related problems become the foci of the development of curricular materials integrating population education contents with various development programmes.

Is there hope for the future? From 1972 to 1985, 24 countries in Asia and the Pacific launched national population education programmes, largely encouraged and sustained by UNFPA funding support and technical assistance from UNESCO. From 1970 to 1978, the main concern was its **acceptability** and **feasibility** as the education sector's contribution to a multi-disciplinary intervention strategy for curtailing unplanned population growth. From 1979 to 1985, the main concern was **accountability** — to show the effects and impact of population education on the target clientele — in the formal and non-formal education sectors. It appears that from 1986 onwards, the issue shall be that of **survival**. UNFPA and Government funding support to the programme seems to be declining *vis-a-vis* family planning programmes. In a few countries, population education is almost fully supported by UNFPA funding. With the gradual phasing out of UNFPA and other international funding support, will financial support to the programme be taken over by Governments? Could the Governments of developing countries afford it? Is it a priority educational programme?

The scenario appears to be bleak as, so far, very few Governments in the region include population education in their educational development plans. However, the participants of MINEDAP V provided a note of optimism for the programme. One of the resolutions unanimously adopted by the Conference recommends that population education be made an integral part of national education development plans of Member States in Asia and the Pacific. If, indeed, Member States pursue this recommendation, population education shall have a brighter future in the region.

Information and documentation services

The UNESCO ROEAP Library and Documentation Service was set up with the dual function of providing data for staff members of the Office as a whole, and serving educational researchers (governmental or private), especially in the Asia and Pacific region. The clearinghouse services involve the collection of information relating, primarily, to education but including other subjects of UNESCO competence about and from Asia and the Pacific. It also promotes exchange programmes and the diffusion of such information through publications and other means, in order to assist Governments, institutions and educational workers (researchers) both within

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and from outside the region. It has an extensive collection of materials relating to the eradication of illiteracy.

Information diffusion and utilization is also an important aspect of APEID. In fact, its secretariat (ACEID), was primarily set up in UNESCO ROEAP to serve as a resource base to develop and strengthen the flow of information, through both written and visual means, in order to bring to the notice of the Member States the availability of various types of resources, in the form of experiences, personnel, information, materials and finance.

There is also a separate Clearing House for the dissemination of Population Education materials.

ROEAP Library. The Library performs a number of functions which are: (a) the acquisition of documents, mainly from Ministries of Education, universities, teacher training colleges and other educational research institutions, and publications received from the other UNESCO regional offices and UNESCO Headquarters; (b) current awareness services through the issue of acquisition lists on a fortnightly and bi-annual basis, and an annual publication; (c) inquiry and literature search services to handle requests from educational institutions in Thailand, and from overseas; (d) distribution, in conjunction with ACEID and Population Education Services, of all publications produced by ROEAP; (e) selective dissemination of information through bibliographies ranging from micro-level educational planning to the universalization of primary education, and support services in the form of reference materials to meetings organized by the Regional Office; (f) annual internship programmes in documentation and information services to train librarians, documentalists, information specialists and others; (g) technical advisory services in the Member States or delivered by correspondence; and (h) research and evaluation of readers' subject interests and the usefulness of disseminated materials.

Information service within the framework of APEID. The information service within the APEID framework is based on the assumption that information support should be looked upon as an integral part of the dynamic process by which a state of change is brought about and maintained in education. It is further based on the following principles:

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1. Information development is not, and was never viewed as, an isolated activity. It emerged as a necessary element in a more comprehensive approach to the exchange of experiences, training of personnel and co-operative development activities.
2. Information is problem-oriented, user-specific, and produced by practitioners of innovation. The problems faced and the experiences available are continuously reviewed under APEID, and the guidelines for the preparation of materials of various types have also been reviewed, and sometimes developed, by the participating Member States at meetings and workshops. The materials are written by those directly involved in the projects, or by visiting teams, who develop them in accordance with the relevance to their activities under way in their own countries.
3. The sense of involvement and identification with materials is widespread. Through operations at the national and inter-country levels, a very large number of persons have contributed to the information pool. All of them 'identify' themselves with the production of the materials as a whole. The second-level identification is created among the professionals by virtue of their institution being linked to the APEID network of research and development institutions.

The Tenth Regional Consultation Meeting on APEID, Bangkok, May 1986, stressed the importance of the information service of APEID in promoting the sharing of innovative practices and experiences. Based on the evaluation exercise conducted prior to the Meeting, it recommended that APEID should make a major effort to strengthen the dissemination process through the development of a news digest; the development of a computer-based information service; the translation service; and the development of a staff member with particular responsibility for the identification and transmission of information on educational innovation.

Population Education information dissemination. An integral part of the UNESCO Regional Programme in Population Education is a Population Education Clearing House. During the last 15 years, the Clearing House has contributed immensely in facilitating the

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flow of population education materials and information in Asia and the Pacific. In its 15 years of existence, the most significant developments in population education information dissemination are briefly discussed below.

Information resource base. In most of the country programmes, there is now a more organized and functional information resource base. The Regional Team assisted country projects to build such information base. More important, there are now more active information service facilities not only at the regional level, but also at the country level. This is partly because the Regional Team, through its Clearing House for Population Education, has trained those in-charge of population information dissemination.

Backstopping national activities. Based on the work plan and activities of country projects, the Clearing House undertakes literature searches to retrieve materials and information and send it to the national project staff for use in their various activities such as training, curriculum materials development, research and information dissemination. This is a departure from the practice of waiting for requests for materials from national project staff.

Repackaging. The main users of population education materials are teachers, non-formal educationists, headmasters, supervisors, curriculum developers and trainers who need actual curriculum and training materials which they can readily use instead of the traditional provision of bibliographies, indexes and accessions lists. Instead of sending materials regardless of interests and needs, selective dissemination of information, repackaged in different forms such as manuals, booklets, newsletters, etc. is done in an effort to match materials with information needs of target groups.

Publications and printing. The Publications and Printing Unit of ROEAP is a technical service, which has been put at the disposal of the advisory services and programme activities of ROEAP and the other Bangkok offices, emanating from the approved programme and budget adopted at the General Conference of UNESCO. The publications are basically within the fields of education, the social and human sciences and culture. The main aim of the publishing activities is to make known ROEAP actions and to spread knowledge of the activities, participated in by the Member States, in order to promote regional co-operation in the region.

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The main publications are usually offset printed documents that are bound in an attractive soft cover. They may be part of a series, or individual publications like studies, reports of meetings, research findings, resource materials, bibliographies, directories or large catalogues. Regular newsletters are also published. Minor publications are usually for internal consumption and mainly mimeographed.

An average of approximately 890 publications were produced annually during the period 1981-1985, of which 80-100 per year were main publications (i.e. around eight per month). From the point of view of workload and capacity, it is significant that the print-runs have risen over the years as regional demands have increased. In 1986 the APEID programme alone, which generates almost 50 per cent of the main publications, planned 47 titles for production, amounting to a total of 57,350 copies and more than 172 million pages.

There are two major, annual publications of ROEAP in terms of size and numbers of copies: *Education in Asia and the Pacific: reviews, reports and notes* presents special articles on the latest developments in education in the Member States and reviews significant new materials from one country considered to be of interest to readers in other countries, the *Bulletin of ROEAP* usually comprises regional overviews, specially commissioned country papers from prominent educationalists, specialists reviews and a comprehensive, annotated bibliographical supplement on a specific theme.

The main types of APEID publications are: inventories and annotations of innovative projects; case studies and portfolios of studies and experiences; handbooks produced as the outcomes of meetings on methods and procedures; modular instructional materials and instruction sheets which are usually exemplar self-instructional modules prepared for some area of innovation, either as an outcome of some APEID activity, or produced under contract with an APEID Associated Centre; occasional papers selected from reports of senior visitors, contributions from APEID meeting participants or from special contributions; ACEID Newsletter; information materials on APEID; and reports of APEID meetings and workshops.

Publications of the future. The Publications Unit installed a dedicated word processor in 1984, the first computer in ROEAP. While it serves the functions of the Unit adequately, in terms of

versatility and speed, it is fast being overtaken by the numerous minicomputers now being used throughout the Office. So the question arises; How will the Unit operate in the future, for example at the time of the 50th Anniversary of UNESCO in 1996? The answer is: it will be far more computerized than today.

Without any attempt to be comprehensive it can be anticipated that there will be better compatibility of software, meaning that more manuscripts will be produced for publication, both in-house and externally, on diskettes. Amongst other things this will reduce the constant re-typing necessary at present and will assist editing and proofreading with the very comprehensive spelling checks that can be carried out in a matter of minutes. Laser printers will handle the rapid printing of text in many styles and sizes and also some graphics. The use of computers with an increasing number of graphics functions, including animation, means that draft cover designs, page layouts and charts may be less laboriously produced.

A final prediction is that, no matter what computer enthusiasts may say, the main effort in the years ahead will still be to produce printed material. After all, books constitute the cheapest means of accurate information, they are easy to store and retrieve and the reader needs no special equipment to gather the meaning of the text. One should always bear in mind that receivers of information are always people; never systems.

CULTURE AND THE FUTURE RACAP

The main functions of the Regional Adviser for Culture in Asia and the Pacific, with headquarters in Bangkok, comprise preservation and presentation of the cultural heritage — both physical and non-physical, cultural studies and cultural development, improvement of museums, creation and creativity and training of cultural personnel. Support also comes from the Sub-Regional Adviser for Culture in the Pacific based at the UNESCO Office for the Pacific States, Apia, Samoa.

The inventorying, collection, study, protection and dissemination of the non-physical heritage, providing appropriate intellectual, material and financial support to Member States for the purposes, *inter alia*, of recording the transcription of unwritten languages and preparation of linguistic atlases, spelling books and elementary dictionaries, is one area of activity. The Republic of Maldives is being assisted in the transcription and harmonization of its national language, known as Divehi. In the Pacific, a territorial survey of Oceanic music is taking place, a collection of, and studies in, the oral traditions of Polynesia and Micronesia are being made, and a Tongan dictionary is being compiled with UNESCO assistance.

UNESCO has launched a number of international campaigns for the preservation and safeguarding of the cultural heritage all over the world. The campaigns related to monuments and sites located in the Member States of Asia, are: the Ancient Monuments and site of Paharpur Vihara and Bagerhat (Bangladesh), where a master plan has been formulated and a plan of action established; Kathmandu Valley (Nepal), where amongst the imposing monuments constituting a remarkable heritage of mankind, the main part of the Hanuman Dhoka Palace Complex has been restored as the first part of an ongoing programme; Cultural Triangle (Sri Lanka), where work has been progressing steadily on the preservation of the monuments at Anuradhapura, Polonnaruwa, Kandy and Sigiriya, which represent a Buddhist tradition that has deeply impregnated the culture of the entire region; Sukhothai Historical Park (Thailand), site of Sukhothai

the ancient city of Thailand, literally meaning 'Dawn of Happiness', which fell in to disrepair after its glorious period in the fourteenth century, where restoration, conservation and archaeological excavations have been in progress for the last several years; and the Monuments of Hue (Viet Nam), situated in Hue, central Viet Nam, which have suffered the ravages of time and destruction by war and where work has been in progress for some time.

UNESCO is providing advisory services to Member States in the region for the improvement of museum management and display. Most of the museums in Asia and the Pacific lag behind in these fields of museology and yet the paucity of funds does not permit actual training for all concerned personnel. It is planned to get guidelines for management, display and curatorship, prepared through the International Council of Museums, which should be applicable to museums in the Member States.

The Regional Office will organize, in collaboration with the Thailand National Commission for UNESCO, the Federation for the Development of Utilitarian Handicrafts, and the World Crafts Council, a pilot training workshop for women handicraft workers in the techniques of dyeing and weaving skills.

To encourage the preparation and implementation, by Member States, of cultural development policies, programmes and projects which promote consideration of people's cultural rights and wishes, UNESCO plans to contribute to, and support, a cultural development project in one of the countries of Asia and the Pacific.

A multi-purpose workshop concerned with both research and practical action and based on a common training core for those active in cultural work, education and communication in the Pacific region, will help in identifying innovative methods of training cultural development personnel.

Member States will also be assisted in emergency rescue of cultural property, in the implementation of UNESCO Conventions and recommendations in the field of culture and sensitize Member States, Inter-governmental Organizations, and Non-governmental Organizations towards the significance of the World Decade for Cultural Development.

THE SOCIAL AND HUMAN SCIENCES RUSHSAP

The programme for the promotion of social and human sciences in the region has grown over the years, and has begun to have a regional character with increasing decentralization. More and more of the regional needs are reflected in UNESCO's programmes and activities, and a greater interaction and increasing regional co-operation are in evidence. Through the Regional Unit for Social and Human Sciences in Asia and the Pacific, assistance is provided to Member States for strengthening their social science infrastructures, and efforts are made to promote the inter-country exchange of social science knowledge and expertise.

The Social Science Disciplinary Survey programme overviews the social science situation in various countries; reviews the growth points of, and trends of research in, individual social sciences disciplines; and surveys the status of social sciences teaching in professional education. The programme has so far covered sociology and social anthropology, political science, economics, and international law. During the present biennium 1986-1987, 11 countries will be preparing reports on the status of psychology.

The most significant contribution towards promotion of regional co-operation has been the setting up of an Asia-Pacific Association of Social Science Research Councils (AASSREC) which completed a decade of its existence in 1985.

The Sixth Conference of AASSREC was held in September 1985, in Bali, Indonesia. The Conference was attended by 11 of the 12 member councils, and observers from the academies or councils of China, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Japan, Malaysia, and the Pacific Social Science Association. The Conference convened symposia on *Social sciences and the government*, and *Youth and society: viewpoints on future*. It also held a special session to discuss the prospects of establishing a Regional Network of Social Science Information and Documentation Centres. Prior to the Conference, several member councils organized national level seminars or discussions on the two symposia themes.

Current activities

The 7th Conference of AASSREC will be held in August 1987 in Seoul, Republic of Korea. Two symposia on (1) Resilience of Asian and Pacific Societies; and (2) Shelter for the Homeless will be organized in conjunction with the Conference.

In collaboration with AASSREC, a regional meeting of experts was held in May 1986 to develop a regional network of Social Science Information and Documentation Centres in Asia and the Pacific. The network, now called Asia-Pacific Information Network in Social Sciences (APINESS) has been formally established with the participation of some 16 countries. This network will closely work with the other UNESCO network on Science and Technology Information (ASTINFO), and help the social science community to develop and strengthen its infrastructure and capability in the field of information and documentation and stimulate regional co-operation.

Women and Youth are two population groups to which the unit has paid special attention. The unit recently completed the preparation of teaching materials for women's studies in India, Japan, Philippines, Thailand and Turkey. Thailand will soon publish the materials to be used in courses related to women at the university level. Some other countries are also planning publication of the



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materials. Work is continuing on the compilation of a Regional Directory of Women Social Scientists and of Institutions engaged in research on women; and a cross-cultural research project on Women: Domains of Decision, which involves India, Indonesia, Malaysia and Thailand. In 1987, a Regional Expert Meeting will be organized to discuss the findings of the project and evolve strategies to promote women's participation in public life.

UNESCO encourages and supports regional and national activities on youth. The unit supported the preparation of national profiles of youth in four countries. At the 6th General Conference of AASSREC, a special panel was organized to discuss 'Youth and Society: Viewpoints on Future'. AASSREC is to publish the proceedings of this symposium. AASSREC also undertook a review of the situation related to unemployment among youth in Asia.

As a follow-up of the Colombo meeting in 1984 on the teaching of human rights and international understanding, the unit commissioned the preparation of teaching materials on human rights in one country. Comic book-style materials were produced on child labour and prostitution, and a game was developed to promote knowledge on child labour and human rights.

UNESCO will also support the Law Association for Asia and the Western Pacific (LAWASIA) for its activities related to teaching of Human Rights.

SECTION TWO

UNESCO — ITS FIRST TWENTY-FIVE YEARS
IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

FELICITATIONS

Twenty-Five Years of Co-operation Between Thailand and the Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific

*by Suradej Visessurakarn**

It has been 25 years since Thailand offered to host the Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific (ROEAP) in Bangkok. Not only has Thailand provided UNESCO with office premises, facilities and the office's operating costs but it has also granted UNESCO's personnel with the privileges and immunities. Moreover, Thailand has closely collaborated with the Regional Office in hosting numerous regional meetings, workshops and seminars within UNESCO's fields of competence. In order to correspond with UNESCO's policy of decentralization, Thailand has recently approved the renaming of the Regional Office to the Principal Regional Office of UNESCO for Asia and the Pacific, which will enable the Office to widen its scope of work and responsibility to cover all fields of its competence namely education, science, culture, social science and communication.

It is rather difficult to give full account of all the activities in which Thailand has participated for the past 25 years. Thus, only some recent activities will be cited in this article.

Regional meetings. Thailand, in co-operation with the Regional Office, accepted to co-host the Fifth Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning in Asia and the Pacific, which is better known as MINEDAP V, from 4-11 March 1985. Two hundred and fifty representatives at both the ministerial and high levels from 22 countries attended the Conference to review the status of education in the region and discuss the priority goals towards which educational development may be focused in the coming years. During the conference, an

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exhibit was held by Thailand and UNESCO to provide information on educational development in the participating countries. H.E. the Prime Minister of Thailand kindly inaugurated the Conference and officially opened the exhibit. Her Royal Highness Princess Sirinthorn graciously visited the exhibit as well. The outcome of the Conference was quite successful and the recommendations made at the Conference were presented to the Committee on Regional Co-operation in Education in Asia and the Pacific so as to enable the Meeting to propose measures to reinforce regional co-operation.

Prior to MINEDAP V, Thailand hosted the International Conference of States with a View to Adoption of the Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education in Asia and the Pacific, in Bangkok in December 1983 where 150 participants from 30 countries, international and non-governmental organizations took part.

In hosting such international conferences, the Thailand National Commission for UNESCO has had good opportunities to render full co-operation and assistance to the Regional Office. Though having to shoulder some expenses and devote time and energy to making necessary arrangements, Thailand is pleased to witness the intellectual exchanges among the member countries, hoping that the interaction will bring about favourable development in education in the region.

Sub-regional and national workshops; seminars and training. Besides regional conferences, Thailand has also hosted numerous sub-regional and national workshops; seminars and training among which are:

1. Technical Working Group Meeting on the Use of Advances in Communication Technologies for Educational Purposes (1985);
2. National Workshop on Computer Applications in Information Storage, Retrieval and Dissemination (1984);
3. National Workshop for Developing Learning Materials and Training Manuals for Post-Literacy Activities (1985); and
4. First, Second, Third Sessions of the Working Group for the International Campaign for the Preservation and Presentation of Sukhothai (1982, 1983, 1985).

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The Thailand National Commission for UNESCO has collaborated with the national agencies and authorities concerned to organize the above-mentioned meetings. Representatives from the Regional Office are always invited to serve as resource persons as well as participants in the meeting.

As regards training, the Thailand National Commission has also hosted training activities in collaboration with the Regional Office. The notable examples are:

1. Information Officers Training in Asia and the Pacific;
2. Regional Training Workshop on the Development of Distance Education Instructional Materials (1985);
3. National Training Workshop on Improvement of Low-Cost Housing Materials (1985); and
4. Training Course on Education for Peace and Respect for Human Rights and the Rights of Peoples (1985).

Study visits. At the request of the Regional Office, the Thailand National Commission for UNESCO has arranged programmes of visits for participants from the Member States. The duration of study-visits ranges from 2-3 days to 2-3 months. Thailand has carefully set the programmes according to the needs and length of stay requested by the participants to ensure that they will gain utmost benefit from the visits. In this manner, the Thailand National Commission has always had close consultation with the Regional Office and the authorities concerned.

Information. Thailand has regularly received publications and news from the Regional Office, especially through the Regional Information Officer. Other relevant documents and publications can also be obtained from the Regional Office library. One significant contribution which was provided by the office is the assistance to establish the Library and International Documentation Centre of the External Relations Division, Ministry of Education. On the occasion of the Rattanakosin Bicentennial Celebration in 1982, UNESCO, in addition to its valuable advisory service, donated 600 titles of books and documents published by UNESCO in the various fields of its competence, and an amount of financial assistance for furniture and equipment of the library.

Programmes/projects. Thailand has been actively participating in APEID since its inception in 1974. In the past 12 years, it participated in or organized more than 200 APEID activities at both regional and national levels. Studies on educational innovation have also been prepared. At present, 14 institutions in Thailand are involved as Associated Centres of APEID.

National Campaign Against Illiteracy. The National Campaign Against Illiteracy was launched in Thailand in 1982 in view of the fact that 14.5 per cent of the population aged 14 years and above was illiterate. The Regional Office has actively helped the Government carry out the campaign from the very beginning. Consequently in 1985, Thailand is proud to be granted by the UNESCO Regional Office the first prize in the Nessim Habif competition for audio-visual media, and third prize for supplementary readers for neo-literates.

Population Education Project. The Population Education Project is another example of co-operation between the Regional Office and Thailand. The office has organized various seminars and workshops, aimed to encourage the Member States to be aware of the problems arising from the population increase and at the same time, disseminate information on this issue to the Member States.

International Campaign for the Preservation and Presentation of Sukhothai. Since UNESCO made an appeal to the international community and started a worldwide campaign for the preservation and presentation of Sukhothai, the Regional Advisor for Culture has been assigned to co-ordinate with Thailand and play an important role in helping Thailand set guidelines for implementation. Advisory services and continued financial assistance from the international campaign have made Sukhothai better known among the international community.

In conclusion, Thailand and the Regional Office have had excellent co-operation for 25 years. On the occasion of the 40th Anniversary of UNESCO, Thailand very much hopes that the existing friendly relations will be further strengthened. Furthermore, Thailand firmly believes that closer co-operation among the Member States and UNESCO will enable UNESCO to effectively undertake its assigned tasks, and the ideal of promoting peace in the world will be even more imminent.

ROEAP's Co-operation to ACCU's Literacy Programme

*by Taichi Sasaoka**

Services and achievements that the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific (ROEAP) have rendered and accomplished, making full use of its decentralized responsibilities, for educational development in Asia and the Pacific are, indeed, worthy of every possible praise and appreciation.

The Asian Cultural Centre for UNESCO (ACCU) has been promoting various regional programmes in three fields, namely book development, cultural activities and literacy, in line with UNESCO's basic principles. The feature of its programmes can be said to be the joint production of concrete materials and training of personnel with the participation of UNESCO Member States in Asia and the Pacific and with the co-operation of UNESCO. In the course of implementation of such programmes and utilization of the end products, ACCU has been enjoying close co-operation from ROEAP. There is a particularly close relationship between the two in the field of literacy.

ACCU's literacy programme is a regional joint programme aiming at the promotion of literacy activities in Asia and the Pacific. Inaugurated in 1980, this particular programme is rather new to ACCU. But with strong and keen support from participating countries and UNESCO, it has been showing rapid growth in its budgetary framework and scale of activities year by year. Consequently, this literacy programme has now become one of the three important fields of activities. This rapid and outstanding growth owes much to UNESCO, particularly to technical and financial support of ROEAP, for which we always feel deep gratitude.

The initiative for ACCU taking up a literacy programme was the Regional Planning Committee Meeting of the Asian Copublication Programme held at ACCU in June 1979. At this meeting, it was

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proposed by the participants that ACCU might launch a 'copublication of reading materials useful for rural development' in the region, based on rich experience in the past on the copublication of children's books. This new idea was welcomed by the participants and they expressed unanimously strong and keen hope for its realization.

Then, the late Mr. Ryoji Ito, former Director-General of ACCU, consulted Mr. M'Bow, who visited ACCU in autumn 1979. As a result of this discussion, Mr. M'Bow expressed his support to this new challenge for ACCU and promised UNESCO's technical and financial assistance through ROEAP. It was the strongest incentive and encouragement for ACCU to make up its mind to take up this new programme in the field of rural development.

Taking opinions of experts from participating countries and ROEAP into due consideration, ACCU drew up a concrete plan of action to produce simple, enjoyable and useful material designed for neo-literates in rural areas. In the course of this development, we cannot forget Mr. Roy Singh's deep understanding and constructive guidance rendered to ACCU from his long experience and wide perspective. Meanwhile ACCU made its own efforts to construct a financial base by securing a subsidy from the Government of Japan, and started preparatory work by reviewing relevant documents and reports produced by ROEAP.

ACCU is now conducting three sub-programmes under the literacy programme for neo-literates with the participation of 12 countries, where illiteracy is still a vital social problem, and with substantial co-operation of ROEAP as follows:

The first sub-programme is the production of prototype materials commonly usable in participating countries, blending the experience of ACCU in book development and cultural activities with the know-how of the respective countries. For this purpose, ACCU holds an annual regional meeting of experts for the production of materials for neo-literates, where contents, themes and formats of future products are decided upon. An Educational Adviser from ROEAP attends as a consultant on the production of quality prototypes usable in this region.

The *Guidebook for development and production of materials for neo-literates*, published in 1985 was the fruit of the co-operation of participating countries, ROEAP and ACCU. This Guidebook,

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presents the theory and practice of production of good literacy materials with a lot of illustrations. Obviously this Guidebook could not have been completed without co-operation of ROEAP and ACCU. The prototype materials and the Guidebook are in English, but have already been translated into a number of local languages for wider use.

The second sub-programme is the contribution to training of personnel engaged in materials production for neo-literates. For this purpose, ACCU organizes a regional workshop on material production for neo-literates in Asia and the Pacific. This annual regional workshop, so far held in Japan/Philippines (1983), Thailand (1984) and Japan (1985), is organized through close collaboration between the Ministry of Education of the host country, ROEAP and ACCU. Special credit must go to ROEAP for its technical and financial assistance. This workshop aims at giving participants an opportunity to learn theory and practice of material production through actual working processes in joint production and field testing in villages. The programme and way of operation of this workshop are highly evaluated by the participating countries and are actually adapted for national workshops. The plan of this regional workshop is decided upon by consultation between ROEAP and ACCU, and the attendance of Educational Advisers of ROEAP as consultants is greatly appreciated so as to bring an effective and successful management of the workshop.



Opening of Second Regional Workshop on Preparation of Literacy Follow-up Materials in Asia and the Pacific (1984, Chiangmai), with attendances of representatives of ROEAP, Ministry of Education of Thailand and ACCU

The third and final sub-programme is to send an international mobile team of experts to support national workshops organized by the respective countries for their own literacy personnel. While the second sub-programme aims at training selected leading personnel from each country, this national workshop aims at training a relatively large number of workers in each country.

The first such team was sent to Nepal in 1986, with a consultant from ROEAP. ACCU and the Ministry of Education of Nepal owed much to his contribution in programming the workshop, the selection of experts and workshop management.

ROEAP has been playing a vital role in promoting ACCU's literacy programme. If ACCU's programme is making some contribution to the eradication of illiteracy in this region, it is due to active participation of the countries concerned and close collaboration from ROEAP. ACCU is determined to further develop its literacy programme with high priority in the years to come, and therefore, we have to ask for continued support from ROEAP.

As mentioned earlier, ACCU is conducting various production programmes in the field of, not only literacy, but book development and cultural activities. We should like to express, in the end, our sincere hope that ROEAP will give ACCU further guidance and support in promoting utilization of its materials on the educational scene, and in devising how ACCU could contribute more to the educational field with experience in book development and cultural activities.

ROEAP and its Relations with NIER

*by Isao Suzuki**

First of all, may I extend to all the staff members of the UNESCO Regional Office in Bangkok and those who work for UNESCO my sincere good wishes for the twenty-fifth anniversary of the UNESCO ROEAP. In 25 years of dedicated services in the cause of educational development of the region, ROEAP has made an outstanding contribution to building up and directing the programme for educational development in the Asian and Pacific region.

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On this great occasion, I consider it a great honour to be Director General of NIER, which has a long history of its close link with UNESCO, having shared efforts to promote regional co-operation in education.

I have been working for a long time in the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture in Japan, and 20 years ago, I was working for the Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education as Division Director for Textbook Administration. I recall what we were struggling for at the bureau in that year, for example, the problems of coping with quantitative expansion of educational population, particularly in upper secondary schools. Accompanied by Japan's rapid economic growth in the 1960s, the enrolment in upper secondary schools was about to make a remarkable expansion. In fact, when ROEAP was created, the advancement rate to upper secondary schools was 72 per cent. During the next five years it reached 85 per cent and at the end of the next five years it was 93 per cent. We experienced a 20 per cent increment in the advancement ratio to upper secondary schools during the 1960s. Thus, we were busy coping with this expansion, in terms of quantitative development of educational facilities and the number of teachers as well as qualitative reforms such as diversification of the courses and content, and the selection system.

At the personal level, my direct contact with ROEAP began when I attended the Fourth Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning in Asia and Oceania held in Colombo, Sri Lanka, in July/August 1978, organized by UNESCO. Through the Conference I learned that national development strategies in countries of Asia and the Pacific strongly require relevance of education to national development goals, and that education is considered as imperative to national development. In this regard I was given a good perspective to review the progress of education within the socio-economic and cultural development in the region. Among many issues discussed at the Conference, I noted the intensive efforts being made to tackle, for example, the problems of eradication of illiteracy, low enrolment and high drop-out rates in elementary/primary schools, and the high ratio of youth unemployment. When I was exposed to these crucial problems of education in the region, I was then able to review the problems and issues attached to secondary education in Japan from a different angle in a broader context.

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I was appointed to Director-General of NIER in April 1985, and six months later I was given the opportunity to visit the UNESCO Regional Office in Bangkok and educational institutions in Thailand, Malaysia and Indonesia and to meet educators in these countries. This trip was kindly arranged by ROEAP. During my visits, I had very exciting and fruitful experiences, observing various educational situations in the three Asian countries and familiarizing myself with the work of the Associated Centres of APEID. On every occasion during my visits, I was very much impressed with the dedication of teachers and educators who devote themselves for the cause of education, in spite of insufficiency of such supporting resources as facilities, teaching materials and others. I also had opportunities for meeting and discussing with a good number of personnel in such different specialities as educational planning, administration and research. I noted all of them were very conscious about their national goals, and they really committed themselves to the objectives and targets set for educational development in their own countries. In these countries every effort seems to be made to develop the country through education, making the educational development relevant to socio-economic development. People were very keen to learn from the experiences of others in improving their education.

UNESCO's activities in the promotion of inter-country co-operation and sharing of experiences among countries have been playing a vital role to the cause of educational development in the region. APEID is a good and typical example of UNESCO's effort. I realize that APEID is really innovative in nature, being a mutual support system for educational innovation and development, and a programme of self-reliance for the efforts and direction in educational development. I understand that when NIER initiated its programme for educational development in 1967 it was rather a superficial idea with the understanding that international co-operation must be promoted in the field of educational research. In the process of development of APEID in the region, NIER itself has become convinced that mutual learning through the network of APEID is really beneficial to the society of Japan in various senses. It is my firm conviction that NIER should make every effort for further strengthening of closer links between educational institutions of Asia and the Pacific and NIER, not only for the cause of educational development in individual countries concerned but also for the survival of human society in the century to come.

I believe that one of the UNESCO's principles is its conviction that though the stage of development may differ from one country to the next, the cultural and human values in different societies are equal. I strongly endorse this spirit and I do hope UNESCO will develop further in the coming years, for the cause of educational, scientific and cultural development of the human being, in spite of difficulties that UNESCO faces in the current world situation. I further express my sincere wishes that NIER will continue to enjoy its closer ties with UNESCO.

STOU's Reflections on Significant Activities of ROEAP

*by Wichit Srisa-an**

The United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) was established at a London conference in November 1945. In 1946 it became a specialized agency of the United Nations. Its purpose was to further the cause of peace by increasing understanding among nations through education and research. The organization was the culmination of almost 40 years of attempts to establish international co-operation in education and culture and is a successor to the League of Nations International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University (STOU) recognizes and admires UNESCO's purpose and activities. UNESCO's activities deal largely with educational development, as shown by the following general aims: expanding and directing education so as to enable the people of every country to further their own development; and developing means of communication in order to facilitate a balanced flow of information, and information systems for the universal pooling of knowledge. UNESCO is geared to act even in crisis situations, such as when, for example, it set up emergency schools for Arab refugee children in the Middle East.

UNESCO has inaugurated many successful and useful projects for educational development. Over half of the world's children of school age do not attend school because of insufficient facilities and

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lack of teachers. In 1957 UNESCO instituted a major project on the extension of primary education in Latin America designed to train more teachers and study the reasons for children dropping out of school. Successful elements of this programme were later applied to similar projects in Asia and Africa.

In developing countries, educational development activities are greatly needed. The role of education in helping to develop human resources has an immense influence upon the progress of these countries. In 1961 UNESCO established the Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific (ROEAP) which has played a significant role in educational development in the region. For its part, Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University (STOU) believes that all countries participating in ROEAP, including Thailand, have greatly benefited from the latter's activities.

STOU has participated in various ROEAP projects which provide opportunities for sharing knowledge, experience and skills through meetings, training workshops, study visits, joint research studies and exchanges of information. One of the most important components of the projects is related to distance education and the open structure associated with it. STOU has played a key role in formulating and implementing these project activities in distance education, such as the project entitled 'Regional Co-operative Programme in Higher Education for Development' which includes many useful activities. Examples of these activities include 'The Technical Working Group Meeting on the Use of Advances in Communication Technologies in Higher Education', and 'The Regional Training Workshop on the Development of Distance Education Instructional Materials'.

The Technical Working Group Meeting on the Use of Advances in Communication Technologies in Higher Education was held for six working days in June 1985 at STOU's headquarters in Nonthaburi. There were participants from Australia, India, Indonesia, Japan, New Zealand and Thailand. In addition, members of staff from UNESCO joined the meeting, which enabled STOU and all participants to examine and study the possibilities, afforded by advances in communication technology, for improving educational methods and for organizing distance teaching systems, including the analysis of the use and limitations of computer technology in relation to the administration of higher education institutions.

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The Regional Training Workshop on the Development of Distance Education Instructional Materials was held over a period of ten working days in September 1985 at STOU's headquarters. There were 12 participants from Bangladesh, China, India, Indonesia, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines, the Republic of Korea, Socialist Republic of Viet Nam, Sri Lanka, and Thailand. The participants were introduced to various principles, practices, and issues related to the development of instructional materials. They underwent practical experience of developing such materials in print, audio and video media. The workshop produced a package of materials which included a report on the workshop, a set of technical papers and a workbook, and also sets of printed materials, audio cassettes and video cassettes as sample packages for dissemination and use by concerned institutions.

From the evidence of the examples above, every activity organized by ROEAP is useful to educational development in the region. STOU recognizes that the activities will benefit higher education in Asia and the Pacific through the exchange of educationists in the region, increasing the efficiency of the instruction systems of higher education in the region, the exchange of knowledge and experiences concerning teaching and learning at the higher education level, and providing direction in the analysis and revision of higher education plans.

As the Lead Institution for the Consortium on Innovation in Higher Education in Asia and the Pacific, STOU organized the Attachment Programme for Personnel in Distance Education. The programme, an example of co-operation between STOU and UNESCO, was held at STOU's headquarters in November – December 1985. There were seven UNESCO scholars from China, India, Indonesia and Pakistan. They had an opportunity to participate in the seminar and to observe and study STOU's experience in the four areas concerned: computer application in the management of distance education; the use of media in distance education; programme development; and evaluation in distance education, and the organization and management of distance education.

Finally, STOU hopes for the continuation of the co-operation among STOU, other academic institutions and ROEAP, in order to develop education in the region further.

BACKGROUND

UNESCO Regional Office for Education: Twenty-Five Years

*Raja Roy Singh**

Greetings and felicitations to UNESCO and its Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific on the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Regional Office. All those associated with the work of the Regional Office, now or in the past, look upon the occasion with a feeling of pride for what has been accomplished, mixed with profound thankfulness for the opportunities which association with the Regional Office provided for serving the cause of education in the ancient continents of Asia and the Pacific.

These 25 years have spanned the founding and the growth of the Regional Office conforming to a striking degree, to the stages of development as we know them from the body of experiences in institution building. First is the **formative stage** initiated on a new idea or mission; this is followed by a **stage of growth** in which the mission goals are expanded and deepened and different ways of realizing the goals are explored. Then comes the **stage of maturity** in which the best experiences generated in the process of institutional growth are diffused and multiplied, each branch becoming a tree. This kind of typology does not of course imply any inevitability of progress from one stage to another. An institution is a living organism, and all too often an institution, like an organism, may get fixed at the formative stage and fail to grow, or it may regress from the stage of growth to the narrow confines of the formative stage.

The Regional Office's 25 years have also coincided in a significant way with the evolution of UNESCO's mission goals and ways of reaching them; indeed, the Regional Office owed its origin to a larger movement in UNESCO, and even beyond in several constituents of the United Nations system. The core of this larger movement and

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search lay in the perception that the mission of international co-operation needed to be reviewed in the context of the emerging and quite different community of nations.

The Regional Office for Education in Asia was UNESCO's first education office at a regional level, in the world; it was not, however, the first regional office of UNESCO. In the 1950s UNESCO had established a number of science co-operation offices (two in Asia) with the purpose of promoting inter-country exchange of scientific information and scientific personnel; in the early 1960s UNESCO established in Bangkok a regional centre for educational information and studies (which was merged with the Regional Office when the latter was subsequently set up).

The first landmark was in 1960 when the representatives of Asian Member States, with the co-operation of UNESCO, developed a regional plan for primary education (known as the Karachi Plan). Within the framework of the Karachi Plan, UNESCO established a cluster of regional centres/offices — three regional centres dealing respectively with educational planning (New Delhi), teacher education (Quezon City), and school buildings (Bandung/Colombo) and a Regional Office at Bangkok in order to co-ordinate the activities of the three centres. The three centres were institutions of the respective host governments, which provided certain programmes of a regional character. Another development was the initiation of a conference of the education ministers of the Member States which was to meet periodically. The first conference met in Tokyo in 1962. The Regional Office of Education was made responsible for preparing the conference and following up on its recommendations.

This formative stage of the Regional Office was characterized by certain 'new' mission goals which gave a strong expanding impetus, and also limitations which tended to narrow the scope of work. For the first time in UNESCO's work regional action as a form of international co-operation came into play, opening new prospects of collective effort. It is significant that a similar trend developed at the same time in other major United Nations agencies, e.g. FAO, ILO, UNECOSOC. The view that international co-operation could only be promoted by 'centre-based action' (centre-periphery model) was challenged by an increasing recognition of the implications of a rapidly growing United Nations membership and

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the wide diversities of economic, social, cultural and political conditions which the membership represented.

Another characteristic of the new mission goals of the Regional Office was the linkage of international co-operation with socio-economic development. The focus on 'development' highlighted the basic problems of poverty, disease, ignorance hunger, illiteracy. In terms of UNESCO's mission in the field of education, it meant an active policy of engagement in the efforts of the Member States in solving their problems of education in the context of their economic and social conditions. 'Co-operation for Development' was an important guiding concept and remains valid today too, despite its use often as a mere slogan, from which the polish has been worn off by empty repetitions.

Thus the Regional Office was, in UNESCO, a mould to form new shapes. There were, however, also limitations hedging in the mission goals. First, the function of the Regional Office was defined as a 'relay post', which brought in the 'centre-periphery' model with a vengeance, and negated the regional approach. Second, the Regional Office and the three centres were limited to primary education, which created a wholly artificial division in considering education in the context of economic and social development. Third, the Regional Office had no programme of its own in relation to the regional and national realities.

These limitations were vigorously called into question by the first regional conference of the ministers of education (Tokyo, 1962), which recommended to UNESCO to develop a plan covering all levels and types of education — (this resulted in the *Asian Model of Educational Development* which was considered and approved by the ministers in their next conference at Bangkok in 1965).

The decade of the 1960s broadly covered the 'formative stage' — one might even be tempted to say that it was a rather long formative stage. With the third regional conference of ministers of education held in Singapore in mid-1971, a new phase opened in the regional programmes and for the Regional Office of Education. Quite appropriately this can be referred to as the 'stage of growth'. The turning point was UNESCO's action (at long last) towards a measure of programme and administrative decentralization. This made it possible to relate action to needs. Within a short period of

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two years (between the Singapore conference and the end of the biennium budget period) the Regional Office had been transformed, with new and expanded mission goals. A decisive factor was the leadership role of Mr. Amadou Mahtar M'Bow who was then the Assistant Director-General of Education at UNESCO. The Regional Office mission covered all levels of education, and mechanisms were developed for constant consultations with the Member States whose participation in regional co-operation activities rose dramatically. The experience of the Asian Regional Office over the whole period was valued significantly enough for UNESCO to establish similar Regional Offices in 1973-1975 in Africa, Latin America and the Arab States.

The Singapore Conference (1971) and UNESCO's action on its major recommendations broke new ground in the modalities of regional and international co-operation. The basic approach lay in the recognition that the relationship of co-operation in education is not one of 'donor' on the one hand and a receiving 'beneficiary' on the other hand. Each participating country has something to give and something to receive; these capacities of ideas, skills and experiences and their mobilization for common sharing should be the substance of regional and international co-operation. The Singapore conference recommendation led to the Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development which, for the next nearly 12 years or so, gave in action and in concepts the animating spirit of regional co-operation across political and all other differences becoming a forum of co-operative action for all Member States developed and developing.

The stage of growth of the Regional Office is replete with other initiatives equally significant sponsored by the Member States, UNESCO, other United Nations agencies — action to combat adult illiteracy, universal primary education, science and technology education, educational planning and management, technical and vocational education, population education and a co-operative programme in higher education.

During the growth stage of the Regional Office, the number of Member States in the region increased dramatically. In 1965 when the second regional conference of ministers of education met at Bangkok, there were 17 Member States in the Asian region representing less than 50 per cent of the population of historical Asia; in 1985

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when the fifth conference met again in Bangkok, there were 31 Member States. In the mid-1970s the countries in the Pacific area joined the region and brought a new accession of strength to its co-operative action — (the region was renamed Asia and the Pacific). The ministerial conference, meeting periodically, and the standing advisory committee set up a few years ago, have proved themselves as powerful mechanisms for promoting inter-country co-operation and action, as vehicles of new ideas and initiatives and innovative programmes, for critical appraisals, and for cementing regional co-operation and linking it with national needs. If these important and invaluable mechanisms are weakened — as they would be if they are marginalized or not given adequate operation room — the whole structure of regional co-operation (and a significant aspect of international co-operation) would be unravelled.

The Regional Office has been, first and foremost, an educational institution rather than a 'bureau' and the people associated with it have been an educational community. The services it has rendered are as an educational forum. As it approaches the twenty-fifth anniversary, the occasion may well mark its transition to yet another stage of dynamic evolution. In its continued development, it will have the profound goodwill of the Member States and all those who have been associated with it through these years of fruitful endeavour in promoting the cause of education.

Growing Up in UNESCO — with ROEAP

*Ananda W.P. Guruge**

Coming to know UNESCO

The closing half of the 1950s were, for UNESCO, a period of hope and enthusiasm, besides youthful vigour. In every field of competence, important long-term plans, characterized by a forward-looking concentration on glaring problems of the day, were in operation or preparation. UNESCO's presence in its Member States was both visible and effective. The General Conference of 1956

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held in New Delhi had fired the imagination of the Asian continent. Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru's encomium to UNESCO as 'the conscience of mankind' was widely endorsed.

Sharing in no mean measure the enthusiasm of the new leadership of emerging nations and the confidence placed in them by their more experienced partners or, more precisely, their erstwhile rulers, UNESCO set for itself ambitious targets. For example, in education, the elimination of illiteracy loomed large as a priority for action. In culture, a ten-year Major Project sought to dispel misunderstandings and misinformation which centuries of 'ruler-ruled' relations had nurtured mutually with regard to cultural values of the East and the West. In science and technology education, projects sprang up all over the developing world to build and equip science laboratories and workshops, train teachers, produce textbooks and learning materials and combat the prevailing preference for academic studies and white-collar jobs.

If you pour in enough money to fill lacunae in technical know-how by means of expatriate experts, to develop national capacities through fellowships to foreign universities and institutions and to supply what the meagre foreign exchange resources could not bring into a country, any under-developed (N.B. the term was then acceptable) country would soon come to its own,

was a firmly held creed both within and outside UNESCO. There was, of course, ample literature by eminent economists to support this strategy.

My first association with UNESCO, 30 years ago to the exact date of writing, was during this memorable era of unmitigated faith and confidence and corresponding action. With my transfer to the Ministry of Education, I became the officer responsible for the UNESCO National Commission, which I recall was an active forum of the best known savants of my country. My first visit to UNESCO Headquarters (still at 19 Avenue Kleber, with only the shell of the Fontenoy building completed) was in connection with the East-West Major Project. Nothing could have been more inspiring for a young man than to imbibe the philosophy and the idealism of international solidarity and co-operation from men who were household names in literature, history, education, international relations and such other

fields. The result was a lifelong commitment to an ideal, even though some would call it a dream.

The birth of the Karachi Plan and the regional initiative. Thus in 1959, I found myself in Karachi, Pakistan, representing my country in a 15-member meeting on Primary Education in Asia. I was already a mature hand in UNESCO affairs – senior enough to be elected the Chairman of one of the two Sub-Commissions. I recall this meeting not only for its final product, the much-discussed Karachi Plan for Free and Compulsory Primary Education in Asia but, more so, for the rude shocks to which all participants were subjected as data on enrolments, attendance, teacher-pupil ratios, teacher quality and average catchment areas of schools for each country were presented with such convincing concern by J.P. Naik and Shamsul Haq (two of the greatest educators to be produced in recent times in the Indian Sub-Continent). It was, to say the least, a dismal and utterly discouraging picture. The figures seemed to say everything. They explained our poverty, our backwardness and our shameful complacency.

To a crowd of government officials who hung their heads in genuine shame, Malcolm Adiseshiah, the young and energetic representative of UNESCO's Director-General, whose enthusiastic optimism has been as infectious as his ever-present smile, spoke of the progress in Disarmament Talks in Geneva and the prospects of endless resources unleashed by disarmament to educational development. Thus encouraged, we approved the Karachi Plan with its twenty-year target (1960–1980) and moved resolutions requesting UNESCO's presence in Asia and regional centres in specified fields. We underscored the need to get our Ministers to commit. 'Get them to sign up their will to act', we said. I flew back to Colombo with the satisfaction that something big and important started in Karachi and that I was privileged to be a part of it. But I could not have, at that moment, visualized either how big it was going to be or how much of the best years of my life would be dedicated to this dream. The dream of universal free education of at least seven years in Asia, of course, appeared to be real and realizable.

The emergence of the Regional Office for Education in Asia. The first Asian Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning took place in April 1962 in Tokyo and, again, I was there with my Minister of Education. In

the intervening years we had taken stock of our educational situation. Sri Lanka had reason to be proud. Starting with universal free education at all levels as far back as 1945, the quantitative target was nearly achieved. In this direction we had experiences to share. But our concern was in quality. The frequent reminder by our delegation that sudden quantitative expansion might erode quality proved to be irksome to several delegations. But we knew the dangers of spreading the butter thin. After ten days of deliberations, wherein internationally recognized specialists in educational economics provided the encouragement wherever realities appeared daunting, our Ministers signed the report in a solemn ceremony declaring their 'will to act'.

Things began to happen fast after Karachi. The Regional Office for Education had come into being in the wing of an old palace in Bangkok with the co-ordinator of the Karachi meeting, Mr. A.F.M.K. Rahman, as its first Director. Regional Centres for Educational Planning and Administration (AIEPA), Teacher Education (AITE) and School Building Research (ARISBR) were established in New Delhi, India, Quezon City, Philippines and Bandung, Indonesia respectively. Japan's National Institute of Educational Research (NIER) assumed regional responsibilities. Three member teams of international experts in education, economics and statistics went to each Member State to assist national professionals to prepare 20 year perspective plans to achieve the Karachi target.

The regional centres embarked on training courses, seminars and research activities. The Regional Office produced technical documents and functioned as a clearing house. The national professionals, who had, hitherto, had little contact with colleagues from other countries began to exchange views and experiences. A whole continent was being knit together in working towards a common goal. It was indeed a very nice feeling — a feeling of belonging to a growing community, bound together by common professional interests and challenges brought to the foreground by comparative studies of one another's national situations. We had more than enough reason to be grateful to UNESCO for playing what was really a catalytic role.

To recall my own experience, how else could I have had such easy and ready access to the advice and guidance of pre-eminent educators of the region like Ali Toussi of Iran, C.D. Deshmukh, K.G.

Saiyidain, J.P. Naik and Prem Kirpal of India, K. Nishida of Japan, M. Sheriff and Shamsul Haq of Pakistan, Yung-Dug-Lee of Republic of Korea, Haji Hamdan of Malaysia, Waldo Perfecto of the Philippines, Manich Jumasai of Thailand, Hutasoit of Indonesia and Ruth Wong of Singapore? Equally inspiring and helpful were the staff of UNESCO: Adiseshiah with his indomitable faith in the prayer of Rabindranath Tagore, 'Into that heaven of freedom, my father, let my country awake'; Rahman, the quiet but determined and efficient organizer; Pires, a pioneering innovator in teacher education; and Vickery and Sheath, the inseparable geniuses bristling with new ideas on how to evolve cheaper and more effective educational spaces — just to mention a few.

The new stewardship and the days of the 'Asian Model'. Rahman's sudden death and the ensuing interregnum could have shaken the whole edifice which had just been founded. But UNESCO took prompt action. Just a couple of months before the Second Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning which was scheduled to be held in Bangkok in 1965, a new Director was appointed to the Regional Office. That was Raja Roy Singh, a general administrator turned educator, a firm supporter of educational research and training, but a confirmed non-believer in the prevalent UNESCO-sponsored creed of educational planning.

He was quick to see the fallacies and the deficiencies of the Karachi Plan. But its goal fascinated him nevertheless. Adopting a new approach to the numbers game which was gaining currency in the name of educational planning, he introduced the Asian Model — a computer-based model which spelled out diverse elements in an all-out effort to achieve the Karachi targets, phased realistically according to the capacities of groups of countries.

I was there again as a delegate of my country but with a new Minister. We carried with us copies of Sri Lanka's 1965 plan for educational reforms in the form of a Parliamentary White Paper. Neither the Minister nor I had seen the *Asian Model* until we reached Bangkok as our route was unusually devious — around the world through seven countries — over two months! The document impressed us immensely. The finely worked out equations were nevertheless intriguing. The majority of the participants knew little of mathematical models and much less of the process of experimen-

tation on a computer on the basis of policy alternatives. But all recognized that a new challenge was being posed to educational policy-makers and administrators of Asia. This was the challenge of innovation, the application of modern management techniques and, to use an expression popularized by Philip Coombs of the 'World Educational Crisis' fame, the need to transform education from its semi-handicraft stage to the industrial stage. With little understanding but ample faith, we approved the Asian Model much faster than was scheduled. The remaining time was used for in-depth discussions on a number of major issues facing Asian education at the time.

Here, for our delegation, was a ready-made opportunity to invite attention to our experience in having already come to the verge of attaining the numerical target of the Karachi Plan. We reiterated our concern on quality, emphasized the indispensability of diversifying education with special reference to technical and vocational education and cautioned against indiscriminate pandering to the social demands. We urged that regional co-operation should now proceed beyond primary education and embrace all levels and types of education. Our statement, 'uncontrolled secondary education becomes uncontrollable', was re-echoed with approval by many delegations. Chunks of the Sri Lankan White Paper thus found their way into the Resolutions of the Conference and we dispersed with new friendships and renewed professional contacts.

Once again, UNESCO's vibrant role in Asia generated fresh efforts in the national scene. The activities of the Regional Centres were visibly intensified. The leadership of the Regional Office was more visible. Its bi-annual Bulletin on specially selected topics and its notes on Education in Asia, with invaluable bibliographical information, served as indispensable sources of technical information to national professionals. Sri Lanka had the opportunity of finding a new home for ARISBR when Indonesia left the United Nations temporarily. Helping its establishment happened to be my last association with UNESCO's regional co-operation before I terminated my national career.

Return to UNESCO and back to regional co-operation. In 1968 my association with UNESCO was resumed after a year's break. This time it was in Paris as a staff member in training at the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) — an unforgettable opportunity to gain from the intellectually refreshing contact with

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Philip Coombs, Raymond Poignant, Raymond Lyon and Jacques Hallak, besides meeting some of the 'big names' in educational planning and human resource development like Tin Bergen, F. Harbison, Mark Blaugh and (Lord) Vaizey.

Whatever the reason UNESCO had for this year's programme, it had a significant use for me. I had the leisure to reflect and re-sources to consult in synthesizing theory and inter-country experiences with 12 years of managing a growing educational system of a challenging ethnic, linguistic and cultural situation. The result was 'A functional analysis of educational administration in relation to educational planning, which was published as IIEP's Occasional Paper No. 16 and, to my deep satisfaction, continues to be used and recommended frequently as a training document.

The culmination of this year's sojourn in Paris was the proposal made by philosopher-cum-educational planner Jacques Bousquet, that I be appointed to AIEPA in New Delhi. Despite an initial objection that a Sri Lankan in India could hardly add an international dimension to the Regional Institute, my assignment received final approval.

To join AIEPA during the closing half of its term proved to be challenging. Coming from a national situation with ample experience at the highest level of policy-making and management, fortified with inter-country exchange of information and reflection on theory, I was sceptical about the relevance of the courses imparted to trainees in the light of the problems which Asian Member States were facing. I found a task to accomplish and was grateful that UNESCO could give me this opportunity.

Training the Asian educational administrator. There was a growing disenchantment, around this time, with the kind of educational planning which UNESCO was supposed to advocate. The Regional Director, Raja Roy Singh, as already mentioned, was a persistently vocal critic. The International Conference on Educational Planning in 1968 had raised several general issues on the basic assumptions and techniques. With the ready co-operation which my Indian colleagues extended, a search was made to ascertain what knowledge, skills and attitudes would equip a trainee to perform his or her national functions more effectively. The outcome was a long paper which I later published under the title, *Why second generation educational planning?*

What surprised us was that the entire problem began with the primary objective of training, which was 'to produce competent backroom boys', who gathered and processed data, applied sophisticated planning techniques and produced technically perfect education plans'. It was assumed that the policy-makers would be thus persuaded to make increasing allocations of public funds to education. My colleagues were highly qualified educational psychologists, teacher-educators, economists and statisticians, none of whom, however, had had the opportunity of administering a sizeable national or even a sub-national educational system. If the realities of political decision-making processes or the complexities of the formulation of the national budget or intricacies of implementing change and innovation received inadequate attention, the reasons were two-fold. Either knowledge and experience in these areas were considered irrelevant to the technical work of a 'backroom boy' or there were none who could convincingly weave them into the training programme in educational planning which had, by then, become a perfect numbers game.

The best illustration of this fact was the practical exercise in operation, called the Garudaland Practical Exercise. If no one made any calculating errors, all would get the same answer at the end. Even the basic emphasis which the Asian Model had placed on experimentation with varying policy alternatives to provide a spectrum of scenarios for the policy-makers to choose from was conspicuously absent in the exercise. With this discovery, began my ten years of commitment to modifying and improving the techniques and methods of training educational planners and administrators in Asia — an effort which ultimately resulted in the seven-volume Basic Training Course in Educational Planning and Management, which continues to be in use in Bangkok.

From planning to planning and management. The first step — which, of course, was the most difficult — was to get all concerned to agree that no national system of education in the region recognized a category of full-time career-long professional educational planners. Economists, statisticians and educators were drawn from time to time for educational planning tasks and, before long, they moved back into their substantive positions to improve their personal career prospects. A four to five year stint as educational planners was already on the high side. The rapid turn-over had an adverse

effect on their receptivity to specialized training and this was evident in the absence of motivation on the part of most trainees.

The content of the five-month training course had hitherto been distributed between planning and administration in the proportion of 90 to 10, as seen from time-allocation. The remedy appeared to be threefold: **First**, to change the emphasis from planning to overall educational management and concentrate on theory and practice relevant to what the trainees would do for the greater part of their career back at home. **Second**, to place the number-work in planning in the proper perspective of the decision-making process, viewed from a systems approach, embracing all elements of the national educational effort. **Third**, to aim at attitudinal change by exposing the trainees to political, social and cultural realities which made a predictable tomorrow a non-existent entity and equipping them to cope with contingencies; real and imagined opposition; and whims and fancies of the powers that be.

By a process of gradual transformation, the content of the course came to be weighted in favour of management (60:40 by 1971). Specialization according to interests was made possible through term papers as well as tutorials on special topics such as Statistics Research methodology, PERT, Work Study, PPBS etc. The Garudaland Practical Exercise was revamped to simulate as closely as possible the multi-faceted operations of a national educational system. The data were presented in seven parts which gave as much emphasis to socio-economic, political and cultural background as to statistics. Simulation and role-playing were adopted as the main techniques of instruction.

The exercise was attempted by the trainees in three groups, each selecting and defending its own assumptions. Each piloted its 'education plan' through a series of simulated consultations and cabinet meetings to a full-fledged parliamentary session. Motivation, spurred on by competition, soared so high that it was often necessary to warn trainees against late nights and overwork. ARISBR, which had always worked in close collaboration with AIEPA, adopted the new technique of training and implemented a Garudaland Practical Exercise in school building development. Equally encouraging were the results achieved in national courses in Nepal, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Malaysia and India and one in the UN Asian Development Institute in Bangkok.

Wider involvement in the Indian educational scene. This exciting work of evolving a methodology for training educational administrators and planners in Asia was further helped by the insights that I gained in assisting in the substantive preparation for a series of regional seminars on such interesting topics as lifelong integrated education, the application of modern management techniques to educational management and the state of the art of educational administration in Asia. Each seminar resulted in a substantial publication and the papers of the third one formed the bulk of one issue of the Bulletin of the Regional Office for Education in Asia. An advanced training course concentrating on education in the year 2000 brought me not only in touch with Ivan Illich of 'Deschooling society' fame but also several key figures behind the Edgar Faure Report, aptly named *Learning to be*.

Another rewarding experience came from a deep involvement with the All-India Association of Christian Higher Education (directed by Father T.A. Mathias). This took me to many educational centres of India where I met some of the most dedicated and enlightened Indian educators, whose modesty and humility as 'trainees' exemplified the age-old tradition of lifelong studentship in oriental cultures. Looking back I find that the stimulating interaction with Indian educators resulted in, not only many public speaking engagements, but also quite a number of published works. It proved to be one of the most prolific periods in my career.

Singapore Conference: The watershed in UNESCO's regional co-operation in Asia. While thus engaged, I was called to Bangkok to work in a team preparing inputs for the working document of the Third Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning, which was to be held in Singapore in 1971. Among the others were Chickermani, the ascetic educational philosopher from India whose insights into problems of education in rural areas were astoundingly refreshing, and Abdul Latif, who subsequently became a colleague as Chief of the Asian Centre of Educational Innovation for Development.

Each of us in the team was developing a paper on an assigned theme and we worked in a large room near the library. Bill Simpson, with his usual sense of humour, had pinned on its door a notice: 'Silence — think tank'. Any thinking we did together or singly was often initiated by Raja Roy Singh with his jolting onslaughts deliver-

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ed in his pungently sardonic style. In fact, we were overly concerned with too many sacred cows and his criticisms were invariably devastating: 'Why invent mythical dragons simply for the pleasure of killing them?' 'That's the gospel according to . . . but what does your own experience suggest?' 'You mean a country which pays high salaries to teachers is doing right. What if these teachers are expatriates working in only a handful of city schools, open only to the privileged'. So he would comment on our drafts. After every discussion, we would go back to the drawing board. But the results were rewarding, as we discovered a few months later that our labours had really found way into the working document.

That Regional Conference was a significant watershed in the UNESCO Regional Programme in Asia. The decade preceding it was marked by the intense activities of the Regional Centres which owed their existence to the ingenuity and the interest of Adiseshiah. According to the original terms of agreement with host governments, the centres in New Delhi, Quezon City and Colombo were to give up their regional functions and become national institutions by the end of 1972. Whether to do so or not was a major question posed to Asian educational policy-makers and educators.

Adiseshiah favoured their continuance as institutions tested and found not wanting. But Raja Roy Singh had different ideas. He conceived of an Asian Centre of Educational Innovation for Development — each word in the appellation having an unmistakable appeal to Asian educators. The manner in which the concept was developed and piloted through several forums was a demonstration of Roy Singh's tenacity and negotiating capacity. A Regional Office where a critical mass of interdisciplinary specialists provided a nerve centre to activate the operations in a whole continent with mobile task forces ready on call, resource persons available at the end of a telephone line, and forums for exchange of information and experience, all guaranteeing a perpetual meeting of minds, was indeed, a very attractive promise. Eventually, this proposal prevailed and the Regional Centres withdrew from regional co-operation.

A renewed and reactivated Regional Office. With the new mechanism for regional co-operation strongly recommended by the Regional Conference of Ministers, 1973 began with an enlarged and reactivated Regional Office. The international staff of the Regional Centres found themselves transferred to Bangkok. We constituted

'Services' of the Regional Office, functioning as Mobile Task Forces. Vickery and Sheath developed the Educational Facilities Development Service (EFDS) and Berstecher and I set about forming the Educational Planning and Management Service (EPMS). Paik and Jayasuriya from AITE found themselves in two different services, the latter heading the Population Education Service (PES). The professional staff who were right along in the Regional Office became the core of what was later identified as the Educational Advisory Services.

Giving shape to the newly conceived Asian Centre of Educational Innovation for Development was the major preoccupation of the office. Meetings were frequent. Inter-service consultations were the order of the day. Never had we witnessed a more active period in the Regional Office. Nor had we seen ever before so enthusiastic and dedicated a band of workers zealously planning and bringing into existence a really decentralized UNESCO. Raja Roy Singh was the ideal leader for such an operation. He worked longer and harder than all of us, generating confidence when it was most needed. 'Excellent as usual', he would generously tell us when he saw good work and help us with his mature experience when difficulties were encountered. What we appreciated most was that he was there with us all the time — a general who fought side by side with his soldiers.

The new services were in operation within months and were exploring ways and means of enhancing the contribution that could be made to the region which had all along valued UNESCO initiatives. Our services were being called for and we were constantly on the move. 'You are becoming an itinerant preacher. I must have a computer to keep track of where you are and where you are wanted', Roy Singh told me once during a brief stop-over in Bangkok to check the mail, answer the cables and change the suitcase before taking a flight to another corner of the continent. 'I think so', I replied, 'people are beginning to think of us as missionaries with a gospel to propagate'. It was really so.

We had so much to share with our national colleagues because we constituted a critical mass, representing a rare combination of specializations and skills, actively engaged in discovering new frontiers and offering challenging alternatives for their consideration and approval. We represented the transition between the expatriate

expert of the 1960s who had ready-made answers imported from the industrialized world and the later brand of international staff who studiously avoided offering solutions to specific problems or telling national professionals alternatives to try. Whenever we were in a country, we teamed up with national professionals and worked with them for we were not afraid of soiling our hands.

EFDS and EPMS were very fortunate in that a team of seven or eight of us, with some really good fire-brands in our Associate Experts, combined skills and experiences in several related fields. We worked together closely intensifying in the process a relationship which was already strong when we operated from New Delhi and Colombo. At times, the Population Education Service, too, joined us, specially as Jayasuriya, by training and inclination, was one with us. We undertook joint missions and evolved new packages of training materials which responded to the region's needs. National training courses, where we experimented with a battery of training modalities, was our special forté. Our expressed mission was to persuade Member States to establish national institutions to train educational administrators and school building experts. Three weeks per month in the field became more the rule than the exception. We derived the energy for the demanding tasks while on mission — not to speak of travelling in all forms of transport on all kinds of terrain and living out of suitcases — from the appreciation and the co-operation of the national authorities. We coined the phrase, **The work of the Regional Office is really in the Member States.** Invaluable support was provided by the local staff, specially the efficient and hard-working Thai secretaries — demure, dutiful and dedicated.

It was not always a one-way movement, although it was less expensive and more convenient when we went to Member States and conducted activities involving scores of national professionals of all levels at a time. We also arranged to bring them to Bangkok or to some other central location. As a by-product, we gained so much experience in cross-cultural collaboration and enriching glimpses of the diversity of Asia's culture were an added bonus. We were achieving much more than the goals of the Education Sector through our involvement in promoting the understanding and appreciation of the many cultures of this continent.

To maintain our effectiveness in the field, it was essential that we kept abreast of the developments in our subjects, on one hand,

and the socio-economic, political and educational progress of each of the Member States, on the other. In this regard, too, Raja Roy Singh's resourcefulness and far-sighted organization was magnificent. The Regional Office already had a good library. To make it better was his ceaseless effort. Recommendations for new additions were not only encouraged and compiled with expeditiously but we were given a **carte blanche** to buy any books we thought worthwhile when on mission. An additional baggage allowance was also included. Every new publication or document was read, reviewed and abstracted by a volunteer and the review or abstract found a place in the bi-annual *Education in Asia: Reports, Reviews and Notes*. Nothing could be more rewarding professionally than to review a dozen books for this publication. The motivation came often with Bill Simpson's draconian deadlines. One could also volunteer to bring out the year's Bulletin. In my six years in the Regional Office, I handled three of them – on Educational Planning, Educational Administration and Open Learning Systems. The learning gains of such efforts need hardly to be elaborated.

For all these, substantial resources were needed. But there was never a dearth. Raja Roy Singh looked after that department and the gaining popularity of the programmes helped to raise a fair amount of extra-budgetary resources. Member States sponsored UNDP and UNFPA regional programmes. National projects pocketed out funds for our travel and subsistence quite often. The divisions in headquarters were often relieved when we found ways of utilizing their savings close to the end of each biennium and thus enabled them to report full implementation of their programmes.

These were remarkable days. Our job satisfaction found expression in a vigorous social life. Parties were frequent both at the office and in our homes. Sing-songs and impromptu dances involved everyone with Roy Singh demonstrating his rare skills in 'Bangra a la Panjab'. Some of us could sing popular songs of several Asian countries, to the delight and amusement of visiting nationals. An **esprit de corp** of the highest order prevailed in office and all were engaged in a collective effort which was as profitable as it was stimulating. The Director-General visited us on two occasions and he was most impressed. Explaining the secret of the unique performance of the office, Roy Singh told the Director-General, 'Ours is an integrated office'.

Fourth Regional Conference: emergence of a new Regional Office. As the only professional staff member in the Regional Office to have been associated with all the previous Regional Conferences of Ministers in Asia, I could appreciate the thoroughness with which all preparatory actions for this conference were accomplished. The most carefully worked out operation was the preparation of the Working Document and the ancilliary reference and information documents. We were handling a really crowded agenda and the canvas to be covered in these documents was much larger than in any previous meetings. They synthesized the findings of a series of national, inter-country and regional studies and reviews. Above all, the emphasis was in formulating relevant and thought-provoking questions to which the Ministers could address their minds. Implied in them was the need to widen the role of the Regional Office to include levels and types of education hitherto not covered in its work.

The Conference itself went on smoothly, justifying the efforts put into its careful preparation — in substance as well as services. It was both productive and promising. The Director-General's performance as the leading light of the Conference was so impressive that he won the instant admiration of all participants. A fresh outlook on regional co-operation found expression and an enhanced role for the Regional Office was, once again, endorsed with grateful appreciation. As if to symbolize the new trend, Asia and the Pacific had the distinction of blazing a new trail in inventing a co-ordinating mechanism to function in between Regional Conferences.

My own professional involvement in the Regional Conference terminated on its eve. I was relieved from the position of the Secretary to Commission I, to become an Executive Officer to the Director-General.

With the arrival of Akihiro Chiba as Deputy Director and the departure within months of several senior staff members, the Regional Office emerged with new blood both in the form of replacements for some and specialists in fresh fields. Higher education, pre-school education, vocational and technical education, literacy and non-formal education and environment education began to receive the attention of the Regional Office and, responding to the growing needs and challenges of the region, it continued its search for new

modalities of co-operation. With the geographical expansion of the region, Australia, China and New Zealand offered new opportunities.

Watching from headquarters as an interested bystander, there was reason for me to be proud of my erstwhile colleagues as well as the new ones. The best way to demonstrate my grateful appreciation was to apply what I learnt there to the wider theatre which encompassed the whole world. There was much in the Co-operative Programme with UNICEF and WFP over my six year involvement for which the credit goes in one way or another to the creative ambience of the Regional Office.

Just as in the 1970s, the Regional Office, with a renewed vigour, met unhesitatingly the needs of the time, it regenerated itself to face, with equal foresight, the demands of the 1980s. Ratnaïke and Crellin, in addition to the Director himself, formed the bridge between the old and the new. But the Director's tasks had become wider as the Assistant Director-General co-ordinating UNESCO activities in all Sectors in Asia and the Pacific. If **innovation** was the by-word for relevance in the 1970s, literacy and universal primary education have begun to claim supremacy and, true to tradition, the Regional Office is on the way to implementing APPEAL 2000 (Asia-Pacific Programme for Education for All by year 2000).

Conclusion

As I review my 30 year association with UNESCO — of which two-thirds was in Asia — I am conscious of its deep and abiding contribution to my growing up — professionally as well as socially. What I gained from UNESCO — specially ROEAP — is certainly much more than what I gave it.

It has enriched my understanding of humanity and enabled me to sympathize with people who struggle to raise their heads in dignity. It has brought me in contact with some of the most exemplary men of determination and dedication. It has taught me to overcome social and cultural prejudices, to rise above parochial sympathies and loyalties and to respect the views and aspirations of people and peoples.

I have seen an ideal driving people to action. I have witnessed the powers of persuasion which underlie the ethical mission of UNESCO. I have found in UNESCO something worthy of being

safeguarded for the benefit of generations to come. To say it all in one sentence, it has made me a better man, convinced of the oneness of humanity and the richness of cultural diversity. This, I can vouch, would be the firm conviction of everyone who has come under the magic charm of UNESCO.

Sheltering Education

*D.J. Vickery**

Edward Thring, the famous headmaster of an English public school, some 150 years ago, complained that, 'Whatever men may say or think, the almighty wall is, after all, the supreme and final arbiter of schools. I mean no living power can overcome the dead, unfeeling, everlasting pressure of the permanent structure, of the permanent conditions under which work has to be done. . .'

While building is not a main-stream educational activity matching, say, curriculum development, it is clearly important in providing appropriate shelter for teaching and learning. The questions prompted by a dissatisfied Edward Thring and later educators and finally addressed by UNESCO in the early 1960s concerned the sorts of shelter needed in a wide range of natural environments and the ways in which schools could quickly and economically be provided to match the growing enrolments at the first level of education.

Different aspects of the same set of problems were to be found in different regions of the world. In Latin America at the time, there was a strong architectural profession so the need for design guidance was of lower priority than studies of school building planning, school mapping, costing, construction and comparative design. In Asia, on the other hand, there was a great shortage of designers; some countries, indeed, had no schools of architecture at all. While there were a number of notable Asian architects, they were too few for their skills to be made available for the design of the thousands of small schools that were needed.

In this situation, most countries built schools using standard plans which were often quite unsuited by way of design and cost

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for the rapid expansion of education that was needed. And, not only were there few architects but, worse, there were scarcely any data on which to base the design of schools for new programmes of construction.

UNESCO is not an omniscient organization and, in 1962, the Regional Office itself had to be persuaded that an attempt to produce new standard plans for the countries of the region was, in the absence of data, unlikely to be a fruitful approach. The natural desire for instant answers had to be checked and a lengthy process of research and development commenced: it continues in the Regional Office today, some 24 years after it started and there are newly emerging problems that will require many more years before they are solved.

So, for ten years from 1962, UNESCO supported the Asian Regional Institute for School Building Research (ARISBR). Thereafter the activity was moved to a newly established Educational Facilities Unit in the Regional Office. To the present, the UNESCO contribution to school building development in Asia has included some 90 man years of expert services in school architecture, costing, engineering and documentation. In addition, and of considerable significance, many of the region's national organizations have made inputs through the award of UNESCO-financed contracts in their various fields of specialization. Building research stations, earthquake engineering schools, university departments of physics, engineering and other, related, disciplines, have all combined in efforts to provide the countries of the region with the data needed for the design of functionally efficient and economical shelters for education.

Member States have often neither the resources nor the time to embark on major, school building design-related studies. UNESCO is in the unique position of being able to determine which problems are common to several countries and either to work to provide solutions or to contract studies to regional specialists. Some of the universal problems that have been dealt with in this way include determination of daylight availability for classroom illumination (building physics); furniture design (anthropometrics); sound transmission between open teaching spaces (building physics); accommodation scheduling (computational techniques), and so on.

Many of these studies required a great deal of organization — some of it rather overwhelming. The illumination study, for example, was undertaken simultaneously in six countries. It required the dispatch of six identical sets of calibrated equipment from the contractor (The Central Building Research Institute, Roorkee, India) to the university departments undertaking the detailed measurements. At each of the six locations, ranging from the Philippines to Sri Lanka, 13 sets of readings were made at exactly prescribed times daily for 12 months — 4,745 sets in all for **each** station. The problems of ensuring ~~that~~ a responsible technician was on duty exactly on time every day may be imagined. Weddings, funerals, public holidays and the like caused difficulties that overshadowed all but the final computer analysis of the collected data.

Another memorable study concerned a new classroom chair designed by a well-known Danish furniture consultant in ARISBR. Several prototypes of this chair had been made by the ARISBR carpenter — a very highly skilled individual. A distinguished visitor one day suggested the chair was not strong enough. The comment had been made many times before, but this was once too many. The carpenter picked the chair up with one hand and flung it clear across the workshop where it landed in impeccable condition!

Probably the most significant ARISBR activity was, however, that of the study of the detailed arrangements in teaching spaces so that they might better relate to the content and methods of education. To this end, a number of eminent educators worked in the institute on topics such as the design of chemistry laboratories (Alles), home economics laboratories (Gonzalez), biology (Sharma), physics (Yu), vocational workshops (Khan) and there was close co-operation with the Sri Lanka Curriculum Development Centre. The output of these endeavours was in the form of prototype furniture, published studies, seminars, training courses and, eventually, the construction of school buildings incorporating many of the new ideas.

The many major school building studies which the Regional Office publishes from its own print shop are matched by provision for engineers, architects and cost specialists from the countries of the region, to visit and work in the Facilities Unit. Such training has always seemed to be one of the most useful services offered by UNESCO to those concerned with school building. A busy specialist

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often lacks the time to read and think about new developments in his or her field and there is much to be gained from reflection on and discussion of professional issues in a relaxing environment with access to a good library and other facilities. Mid-career development, now popular in many countries, has been actively encouraged by UNESCO for the past 25 years.

Often the construction programmes of the Member States have to take priority over office or laboratory studies and UNESCO staff turn to work in the field — a welcome and refreshing experience. Sometimes, however, the visits are requested more for diplomatic than for technical reasons. On one such occasion the national school building Director — a friend of long acquaintance, very bright and overflowing with good ideas but with a difficult Minister, told the visiting UNESCO specialist, 'I only want you to explain my proposal to the Minister and get his agreement'. This done, the project executed, the Minister delighted, one thought of the old saying, that a prophet hath no honour in his own country. New ideas are, of course, often either difficult for educational administrators to evaluate or so time-consuming in their development that governments are sometimes unwilling to allocate scarce resources from main-stream school building programmes for their implementation. One of the most useful ways of overcoming this difficulty has proved to be that of inter-agency co-operation. UNICEF, in particular, has made an unsung but outstanding contribution to school building development in various countries of the region through provision of seed money for prototype construction of innovative school buildings. In one country, for example, the outcome of building six, government and UNESCO designed, UNICEF-financed prototype primary schools was intense government satisfaction which led to the subsequent construction from government resources of over 500 similar buildings.

But perhaps the most important attribute of UNESCO's programmes in support of school building development in the countries of the region is their interdisciplinary character. Sheltering education requires a very thorough understanding of education itself and of the processes associated with it such as educational planning, teacher education and the administration of education and its financing. The approach to a problem of school building design or to a large scale construction project, is always informed by reference to the specialists in these fields in the Regional Office and it is per-

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haps this, above all, that lends credibility to UNESCO's work in the school building field in the region of Asia and the Pacific.

One can hardly conclude without a recollection or two of the Regional Office itself -- first located in old Dusit, a quiet, dignified part of Bangkok where, in the early 1960s when first I knew it, the electric trams still clanked along and the zoo next door was a favourite spot in which to wander during lunch time. In the elegant teak building with its polished floors, were to be found Rahman, Krishnamurti and dear old Professor Menon, writing page after page of immaculate English with never a correction -- a feat I have yet to see equalled. For a short while, there was Arnaldo who claimed, among other things, to have bought UNESCO's first typewriter in London where the organization was founded in 1946. They have all gone, but several staff members of that time still continue to serve. And, of the new office, the memories are of Raja Roy Singh returning in the evening after a cup of tea to work in the office garden, planting, pruning and sometimes just wandering round and enjoying the lushness of it all. The humming print shop of El Dib then Simpson from which were produced some of the most interesting and immaculate documents was another joy, as was the library which has a special collection that is probably equalled nowhere for its resource of material on education in Asia. A couple of odd and seemingly unimportant organizational quirks bound the office together. The first of these was the practice of circulating to all staff members all of the outgoing letters. This meant that we all knew what our colleagues were engaged with, if only in a general and sometimes unofficial sort of way. And, secondly, there was the custom of Raja Roy Singh rarely to call people to see him in his office but rather of wandering round to meet the staff member *in situ*. He kept in touch, we knew it, and we enjoyed his walking in for a cup of coffee and a chat. Little things that make big organizations tick. . . And, finally there was the canteen and the 10 a.m. cup of soup. Everyone went -- visitors, drivers, clerks, professionals and sometimes wives and children. Now retired, I still have my soup at 10 a.m. daily -- and hope they do too.

**The Contribution of the UNESCO Regional Office
to the Promotion of Population Education**

*J.E. Jayasuriya**

In no other field of educational endeavour has the contribution of the UNESCO Regional Office during the past one and half decades had such far-reaching effects extending beyond the Asia-Pacific region to the United States, the African and the Arab States as in population education. The report of the workshop held at Bangkok in 1970 was undoubtedly the first attempt anywhere in the world to set out, albeit in broad outline, the knowledge base for population education.¹ The following year, an Asian consultant taught at the UNESCO sponsored Asian Institute for Teacher Education in Quezon City in the Republic of the Philippines the first ever course in population education to teacher educators from about 12 countries of the Asian region. The post of Regional Adviser in population education was created and filled at the UNESCO Regional Office later in the same year, and with it the nucleus for an institutional base for the promotion of population education was established.

The introduction of population education into the curricula of educational institutions was an entirely novel undertaking, and it raised the need for a conceptualization of the new field of study and methods of presenting it. Instead of recourse to reports of meetings as the sole output, staff papers on problems and issues arising in the new field of study originated in the Regional Office as from late 1971, and to this day they number over 60. They are a great deal more than an exercise in self-expression. It is the discharge of a responsibility on the part of the staff, for receiving as they did their salaries in order to devote their working hours to reading and thinking about the new field, they owed it to the countries of the region, if not to the other countries of the world, to help them conceptualize with increasing degrees of refinement what seemed at first sight an amorphous area of study. To say that the task has been completely accomplished would be an exaggeration. There is

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still some way to go as has been argued in a paper entitled *Population education: the unfinished agenda*.²

The knowledge base developed in broad outline at the 1970 workshop was given body and substance in the massive tome entitled *Population education in Asia: a source book*, and published in six parts, the combined effort of the staff and a team of consultants.³ It drew its examples from the region as a whole, but it was recognized at the very outset that for curriculum development in each country source books with the necessary specificity and local flavour were necessary. They were sponsored for several countries of the region, and one notes with interest how a country such as Somalia beginning its population education programme in the 1980s undertook as its first task the production of a national source book which reflected the quality of life emphasis that has increasingly characterized the approaches in Asia. In this connection, it is relevant to note that the *International encyclopedia of population* recognizes the Asian contribution in a passage which points out that the quality of life approach was developed in the mid-1970's in Asia and that it has become the fastest growing approach throughout the world.⁴ This statement is followed by a brief summary that puts succinctly the main features of the quality of life approach.⁵

The first two or three population education project documents prepared by the Regional Office in consultation with Member States in the Asian region were based firmly on the principles of programme budgeting. The procedure soon got institutionalized for all UNFPA assisted population projects, as it got incorporated in the guidelines issued by the UNFPA for the preparation of project proposals. Apart from this contribution which was significant in its own right, the regional team gives valuable technical assistance in the implementation of projects. In fact, this assistance is sought to such an extent that the regional team finds it difficult to cope with some of the requests. Several dozen project personnel have also been trained through internships, regional training courses, and in-country training courses. The services of some of those trained in Asia have been sought in a consultant capacity in other regions, such as Africa and the Pacific, for example.

The role of universities in the promotion of population education; the development of instructional materials and packages; the identification of training needs and the preparation of training

materials; teaching methodologies involving, in particular, problem analysis and value clarification; the integration of population content in literacy and other out-of-school educational programmes; the co-ordination of formal and non-formal programmes; evaluation and evaluative research in population education have received their share of attention. Reports of workshops, seminars, technical working groups, meetings and consultancies number more than 25 and have been valuable inputs into programme development. Much, however, remains to be done, especially in the field of evaluation, as a scrutiny of some of the test items used shows a certain lack of sophistication. In general, it may be noted that a previous issue of this Bulletin has fairly adequately documented the Asian experience up to that point of time.⁶

The population education clearing house has been much more than a unit for receiving, cataloguing and issuing lists of accessions. It has played a dynamic role in synthesizing and making available in readily usable form relevant knowledge carefully distilled from a variety of sources. Its abstract bibliographies, repackaged materials in the form of manuals, booklets, etc. have been invaluable for programme development not only in Asia and the Pacific but in other regions as well.

In training courses in population education, notably at Columbia University Teachers College, Florida State University at Tallahassee, and the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, the reference materials which trainees are required to consult consist very largely of the outputs from the Regional Office and the Asian projects. They also comprise the major part of the document collections of national population education projects in Africa, the Arab States, and the Pacific. Finally, it may be mentioned that for its part the UNFPA has not been slow to recognize the contribution of the regional team in Asia as is evidenced by the fact that even in times of financial stringency there has been no cutback in the support extended by the UNFPA for the activities of the team.

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EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Universal Primary Education

Universal primary education was first adopted as a goal for the countries of the Asia region in the 'Karachi Plan' (1960), which proposed 'that every country of this region should provide a system of universal, compulsory and free primary education of seven years or more within a period of not more than 20 years (1960-1980). . . ' This target has not been attained for various reasons.

Many countries of the region have now accepted Universalization of Primary Education (UPE) as a priority objective and target dates have been fixed for achieving it. For the promotion of universal primary education in the countries of the region, UNESCO ROEAP has provided assistance and support to the member countries in a variety of ways, — advisory services, regional workshops, seminars and training programmes on important aspects of primary education, attachments, internships and sharing and exchange of country experiences through inter-country study visits of innovative projects and exchange of documents and printed matter. In particular, support to the member countries in primary education has been promoted within the framework of the Asia and Pacific Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID).

The programmes supported by ROEAP in primary education in the past few years cover mainly three areas; the promotion of universal primary education with particular emphasis on girls education, improving access to education for disadvantaged groups, and raising the achievement level of children. The present programmes continue to centre around these concerns.

In 1983, a series of national studies on the situation of primary education was prepared. The studies prepared are on Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Pakistan, Philippines, Papua New Guinea, Nepal, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Socialist Republic of Viet Nam, China, and the Republic of Korea. The studies were later reviewed by a

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Meeting of Specialists and a regional perspective plan was prepared, giving focus to possible new measures and programmes for achieving universal primary education before the year 2000. These studies were later published as background materials for the Fifth Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning in Asia and the Pacific (MINEDAP V) which was held in March 1985 in Bangkok. In 1985 a high level regional panel on the education of girls and women was constituted, to promote the exchange and sharing of experiences among member countries. The panel visited Bangladesh, Nepal, India and Pakistan and prepared an in-depth analysis of problems and issues related to the education of girls, on the basis of field visits and meetings with specialists in planning, educators, teachers, social and community development workers. Those countries which have low enrolment of girls in primary education were also provided technical and financial support for the preparation of national studies to examine the problems related to girls' education and evaluate the impact of the measures already taken and to propose new ones to improve participation of girls in education. The studies were completed by the participating countries and a Regional Review Meeting was organized on the Situation of Girls Education in Asia and the Pacific in November 1985, which among other things, made specific proposals for stepping up girls enrolment and participation in education. Member countries have also been assisted through regional and national workshops for developing training materials for girls' education.

UNESCO has also supported programmes aiming to improve the education of disadvantaged population groups living in different socio-cultural and economic circumstances, including those in the remote, isolated and sparsely populated areas. The present focus in this respect is mainly on training teachers and community workers in the content and methods of teaching, management of schools, and the development of locally based teaching aids.

One important project launched recently by UNESCO through APEID is the Joint Innovative Project on Raising Achievement Level of Children in Primary Education. Its emphasis is on qualitative improvement of primary education especially for those who are educationally disadvantaged and deprived. These are national level operational projects involving action research in the member countries. Nine countries of the region (China, India, Indonesia, Republic

of Korea, Malaysia, Nepal, Philippines, Sri Lanka and Thailand) are presently participating in the project. The projects focus on the following aspects of primary education:

- a) The effective preparation of young children for primary education;
- b) The implementation of strategies including methods and materials of instruction and pupil evaluation in schools, in the light of studies of young children's achievement in their early education;
- c) The preparation of teachers and supervisors for playing their roles effectively in the teaching and guidance and provision of materials; and
- d) The effective involvement of parents and community in the primary education of children.

Participants in MINEDAP V recommended that UNESCO initiate a major programme aimed at the eradication of illiteracy and universalization of primary education as early as possible in the region. Following this the 22nd Session of the General Conference of UNESCO, held in Sofia, Bulgaria in 1985, adopted a resolution calling for UNESCO to launch a regional programme for the eradication of illiteracy and for universal provision of primary education in the Asia and Pacific region by the year 2000.

To follow up on the decision of the General Conference of UNESCO, a Regional Experts' Meeting in conjunction with the Regional Consultative Meeting on APEID was held in Bangkok in March 1986 which adopted a Regional Programme 'Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All' (APPEAL). This meeting was followed by a Programme Development Meeting which outlined and suggested specific programmes and action to be undertaken in primary education.

The Programme Development Meeting prepared 45 specific activities, in the following five areas of primary education for consideration by ROEAP.

- a) Enrolment and retention of all primary school age children with particular focus on girls;
- b) Improving participation of disadvantaged and deprived population groups in primary education;

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- c) Improvement of the quality of primary education;
- d) Improving retention of contents learnt by children in primary education and linking it to continuing education;
- e) Planning and management of universal primary education at the macro-level.

Eradication of Illiteracy

The first World Conference of Ministers of Education on the Eradication of Illiteracy was held in Iran in 1965. Immediately after the Conference, UNESCO initiated the 'Experimental World Literacy Programme' throughout the world. Iran and India were notable participants from the Asian region. Iran implemented a work-oriented literacy programme in 1967 sponsored by UNESCO/UNDP, while India implemented a farmers functional literacy programme with the help of UNESCO and FAO in 1968. Many other countries initiated projects, on their own, to eradicate illiteracy and to link literacy with development efforts like agricultural development or family planning, to raise the living standards of the people.

Some countries had earlier launched nation-wide campaigns against illiteracy. For example Socialist Republic of Viet Nam started a literacy campaign in 1945 after its Declaration of Independence; China launched an anti-illiteracy campaign and workers-peasants education programme in 1952; Indonesia launched its literacy campaign in 1960; and Burma began its literacy campaign in 1964.

UNESCO provided assistance to many Member States in Asia, mainly to formulate literacy projects and to train key field workers like instructors and supervisors. In co-operation with other international and regional organizations like the Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Secretariat (SEAMES), the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP), FAO, and the United Nations Fund for Population Activities (UNFPA), UNESCO assisted the Member States to organize 'Field Operational Seminars'. These seminars were used to train key literacy workers to formulate projects linked with development activities like agricultural programmes, family planning and community development projects.

In many countries of the region, the initial enthusiasm and vigour of the 1960s to eradicate illiteracy slowed down and stagnated. As a result the problem of illiteracy remained as a growing problem and continuing challenge. Burma, China and Socialist Republic of Viet Nam, however, kept up their momentum and achieved remarkable results in reducing illiteracy. Indonesia, Mongolia, Malaysia, Philippines, Republic of Korea and Thailand achieved a higher percentage of literacy by strengthening their primary education systems and supplementing them with adult education programmes.

In the 1970s a new thrust was generated in literacy activities, encouraged by the importance given to mass literacy in the International Development Strategy of the United Nations, resolutions passed by the UNESCO General Conference at its various sessions, and by the policy statements by various international organizations such as the World Bank and UNICEF; and supported by the pronouncements and declarations by the heads of states and government leaders in many countries of the region.

UNESCO organized many regional level meetings, symposia and seminars involving literacy leaders and experts from the Member States, thus providing opportunities to discuss, and find solutions to, basic problems in the literacy campaigns in their own countries.

The seriousness of the problem in Asia and the Pacific became even more evident. Studies showed that about 75 per cent of the world's illiterate population (15 years and above) live in this region. While the rate of illiteracy has decreased, from 45 per cent in 1970 to 36.1 per cent in 1980, population growth has caused the absolute numbers of illiterates to increase, from 638 million in 1970 to 650 million in 1980.

Because of the magnitude of the problem, literacy leaders and experts have agreed that nothing less than nationally committed, well planned, mass literacy campaigns in the countries of the region will meet with success.

The scourge of illiteracy. Literacy is a decisive factor in liberating individuals from ignorance and exploitation, and developing society. Research studies show that countries with over 50 per cent illiteracy have:

- a) High infant mortality rates;
- b) Most of their children undernourished;

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- c) Short life expectancy, at birth (less than 50 years);
- d) Widespread endemic and communicable diseases;
- e) Most of the population without access to clean drinking water; and
- f) Most of the population below the poverty line or the minimum needed for meeting essential needs.

Thirteen countries, including five of the seven countries with literacy rates below 50 per cent, prepared national studies which included their plans for eradicating illiteracy by the year 2000. An analysis of these studies was made in 1983 by a panel of experts and a number of possible strategies for action prepared.

The participants at MINEDAP V, in 1985, recommended that a regional programme to universalize primary education and eradicate illiteracy by the year 2000 be launched. In response to this recommendation, the General Conference of UNESCO at its 23rd session in 1985 authorized the Director-General to take the necessary steps to launch a regional programme aimed at the universal provision and renewal of primary education and eradication of illiteracy in Asia and the Pacific. Thus was born APPEAL, the 'Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All'.

Higher Education

It could be said that the years of rapid expansion of higher education in Asia and the Pacific coincided with the history of UNESCO. More than 80 per cent of the institutions of higher education in the region have been established since 1945, although at least one has been established for almost 1000 years! Universities are no longer found only in the cities. In fact, many institutions of higher education have been established out of the cities during the past 40 years.

In the mid-1960s it was observed that the trend was towards the establishment of specialized institutions and specialized universities, or according university status to established specialized institutions. In addition, national research laboratories, institutes of technology, and institutes for higher research in the medical sciences and agriculture were being developed outside the traditional university structure. The impetus for this was a growing awareness of the

need for higher research in areas which were of vital concern for the modernization of national economies. This, however, began to cause a problem in co-ordination and development of unified policies for the development of higher education. Some countries introduced legislation to control funding and ensure the maintenance of standards.

The enrolment of women in higher education was generally low (averaging around 20 per cent of the total), with the Philippines being a major exception and recording more than 50 per cent since the 1960s. By 1982 there had been an overall improvement with Burma also reaching 50 per cent and Australia, Sri Lanka, Malaysia, Tonga, New Zealand and Thailand between 40-49 per cent. On the other hand there were still at least four countries with below 20 per cent participation of women in higher education, and in two of these countries the figures were showing a decline.

Problems being faced by many, previously colonial, countries in the early 1970s included the lack of relevance of the knowledge being imparted, which was abstract and theoretical and largely controlled by externally administered examinations; the disuse of indigenous languages in university learning caused by the necessity to use foreign languages of instruction, making those receiving university education a class apart from all others; and the consequent alienation of the universities from their national cultures.

As a consequence of the rapid expansion of primary and secondary education in the region during the period 1950-1970, there was an increased demand for higher education, reflecting newly awakened educational and social aspirations and the ethos of equal opportunities. The broader access to higher education was gradually changing the composition of the student population in terms of social class and geographical distribution.

Other important questions being asked at this time were concerned with the need to relate higher education more closely to the objectives of national development, the continuing trend towards the establishment of specialized institution, the development of the research capacities of the universities, and the diversification of structures. The use of radio and correspondence instruction was being tried out in India, Japan, Pakistan, the Republic of Korea, Sri Lanka, and Thailand.

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The relevance of higher education to the national context was being seriously debated. Seven countries of Southeast Asia established the Regional Institute of Higher Education and Development which was to make continuing studies of how institutions of higher education can make a contribution to national development.

Participants at UNESCO's Regional Co-operative Programme in Higher Education for Development meeting in 1981 observed that institutions of higher education still needed to relate themselves more to individual aspirations and societal needs. It was noted, however, that in spite of the many difficulties, many countries were shifting their emphasis towards technical and professional education and away from arts and humanities. Greater attention was also being given to applied research adapted to the demands of development-oriented societies.

The major concerns were the maintenance of quality at a time of very fast growth in student enrolment, a public demand for more accountability and efficiency in the management of higher education institutions, the difficulties posed in the transition from foreign to national languages including lack of trained staff and resources in the national languages, and the increasing budgetary stringencies combined with the pressure for change for higher education systems.

The greater use of distance education techniques throughout the region is one major innovation that has continued from the 1970s. It is regarded as a means to broaden access to higher education at a relatively low cost and is being used by about 50 institutions in Asia and the Pacific.

Science for All

The movement for reform in science education — to make science and technology education relevant and interesting for the majority of students — began only a year or two before the UNESCO Regional Office for Education was set up in Bangkok. 'Science Education in the Asian Region' was the subject of the *Bulletin of the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia*, Vol. IV, No. 1, September 1969, which described national science programmes from 14 Asian and two Pacific area countries, three regional and sub-regional science projects, and gave a few examples of current science activities outside the region.

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Educational development

This was a time of transition, with curriculum reform being concerned with updating science content to make courses relevant to applications in the world of work, as well as the further development of suitable science programmes at the first level of education. Because of the rapid changes taking place in science and technology, teachers' guides and support materials were being recommended as practical alternatives to the textbook. Examination reform, which emphasized more than the mere recall of facts, was being recognized as a vital part of curriculum reform. The lack of electricity supply and the problems of replacement of spare parts and the maintenance and repair of audio-visual and laboratory equipment were seen as major concerns in many countries. Importance was being given to the new attitudes being required of teachers and the consequent changes in teacher training.

Piecemeal efforts to carry out science curriculum reform were recognized to be expensive and futile. Concerted action by educational administrators, research workers and teachers, university and industrial scientists, technologists, textbook writers, audio-visual aids specialists, broadcasters and equipment specialists was needed.

The countries that contributed to this Bulletin reported nine ongoing UNESCO/UNICEF science projects and seven instances of the supply of UNICEF funded materials and equipment. Another chapter of the Bulletin was devoted to a report of the UNESCO Project for Chemistry Teaching in Asia, located at Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok as a national project with a regional character. This course had two main objectives, to modernize chemistry courses and develop new teaching materials, and assist in-service and pre-service teacher training, improve examinations and textbooks and use the latest methods of teaching.

An International Working Group, consisting of chemistry teachers, scientists and other consultants from universities and teacher training colleges throughout Asia, was formed at the Project during 1965-1966 to carry out basic research into the chemistry content of most school courses. They also wrote programmed instructional sequences, developing suitable chemical systems for student instruction, making 8mm short film loops and low-cost kits for experimenting at secondary school level.

UNESCO assisted study groups in the Asian countries by supplying the experimental teaching materials prepared by the group



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in Bangkok to stimulate local preparation of textbooks and other teaching materials, by arranging study visits and providing fellowships. The topics were later extended to cover first physics, and later all science subjects.

Science education continued to be a major concern, in almost all the Member States, throughout the 1970s, with high priority being given to its expansion and qualitative development. It was realized that special attention should be given to science, not only as a school subject, but also to its role in all spheres of everyday life, and that it should be an integral part of everyone's basic education. By the mid-1970s primary science was one of the core subjects for compulsory study in all countries of the Asian region. This contrasted with 1965 when 65 per cent of primary pupils completed their first-cycle education without ever being exposed to learning experiences in science.

The most significant development during this period was the establishment of separate institutions for curriculum development in science, leading to the association of expertise from various bodies within and outside the educational system to develop new science curricula. There was also a major shift towards the development of indigenous curriculum programmes reflected in the new instructional materials which incorporated more local experiences and use of the the learners' environment and locally available resources to provide first-hand science experiences, especially at the basic level.

Teachers were being given increased freedom to design their own teaching/learning experiences which emphasized the inquiry and discovery approach by pupils. There was a strong tendency towards an integrated approach to the content within the various branches of science at the basic level, with some Member States attempting to integrate science with areas of social sciences and humanities and the real-life situation of the child as a major source of learning.

The difficulties of providing enough equipment for the programmes meant that many countries established centres to design and develop equipment suited to local conditions and using local raw materials. The tendency was, at the basic level, to evolve science education programmes capable of providing valid learning experiences, without being dependent on traditional equipment.

Educational development

More and more Member States were intent on making their basic education systems, comprising health and nutrition, development of employable skills and rural development available and relevant to the entire society. APEID became the vehicle through which the experiences in developing guidelines, approaches and co-operative development of materials for the science education component of the programme, could be shared.

It became clear, that while curriculum development was being successfully undertaken, there was not the corresponding experience in the implementation of the new curricula and the in-service training of teachers was lagging behind. It was also recognized that there was a need to reform examination procedures.

By the early 1980s several countries reported the environmental emphasis they were giving out-of-school science education. Some countries had begun science clubs, science fairs, science centres, and zoological parks, but in most instances they appeared to cater for the in-school population, outside the regular school hours, rather than to young people not in school. The most successful activities were reported to be those where participants actively created exhibits for science fairs, made the models, or undertook science projects outside the school laboratories. While there was enthusiasm for out-of-school science, little or no evaluation had been made on its effectiveness.

More emphasis is now being given to the applications of science — that is, technology. The motto 'Science for All' reflects the recognition of science and technology as being of value to the individual, to the community and to society as a whole. Most countries in the Asia and Pacific region have science policies usually linking scientific and industrial research and development with economic development and national goals.

The growing recognition of the importance of science education at all levels is implicit. In 1984, science was being taught as a core subject at primary level in all countries, but not necessarily from grade I. There is an emphasis on the local environment and nature, and on learning by doing. Activities are usually conducted in the classroom or, in some cases, the school garden and village environment. Constraints are shortage of materials, large classes and, most serious of all, untrained or unqualified teachers.

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Science is usually a compulsory subject from grades VI to VIII, often being taught as integrated, or general science. At the upper secondary level, science is often an elective course, but in a few countries it is compulsory throughout the secondary stage. With a few exceptions, science is still being taught as an orientation for higher education, and the curricula are not generally relevant to the world of work or to the learners' environment. Technology education receives little emphasis. Lack of teacher retraining, the examination system and parental attitudes are the major reasons why these problems have not been overcome.

There is a wide disparity between some countries which report that 80 per cent of schools are poorly equipped, and those that are self sufficient in science equipment. The same situation exists with educational technology, the simplest aids being unavailable in many countries, while others are well equipped and experimenting with the use of microcomputers.

Community schools are beginning to offer extension courses, including science education, out-of-school for the local community. Generally the popularization of science through the mass media is not well organized, structured or financed. In some countries distance education techniques are being used successfully to reach students who are unable to participate in formal schooling. There have been some encouraging results with the establishment of science centres offering 'hands-on' exhibits which capture the imagination and stimulate a sense of curiosity.

APEID as an Information Service

Twelve years ago, when APEID was launched as a regional mechanism for co-operation in education, there appeared to be a dearth of documents on educational endeavours in this region written in the international languages by the educational practitioners themselves. Whatever were available were mostly written by those not directly involved in the operational aspect of the programmes or projects. To remedy the situation, the effort of APEID in the first two or three years of its existence was to build up an information base on innovative experiences available in the region, contributed by the people who were, themselves, responsible for the work.

One of the very first activities at the regional level was to encourage the countries participating in APEID to prepare inventories of their innovative projects and programmes, either by organizing national seminars or through other methods. Eleven countries did so, and to their satisfaction, they found out that many of their own educators, for the first time, came to learn about what their fellow educators were doing. So the information assembled was useful not only for regional dissemination, but also for national consumption.

The APEID information service has since then developed steadily. It is now more subject-oriented, covering mainly the programme areas identified by the Member States for APEID, such as universalization of primary education, science and technology education, training of educational personnel and educational technology. At the same time it is searching for information on emerging trends in educational development, such as computer use in education, textbook production and utilization, new models of secondary education, school-based in-service training of teachers, and the futures of education.

Recognizing that language is often an obstacle to information dissemination to the grass roots level, APEID has supported national efforts in translating APEID publications into the national languages for wider local dissemination. A few countries have produced and distributed national language versions of selected APEID publications, or selected extracts, with small financial support from APEID.

APEID has produced two films in joint co-operation with the Ministry of Education of Thailand. Both films focus on education and rural community development in the northeast of Thailand. They reflect the spirit and manner of APEID's activities at inter-country and national levels to facilitate, within the Member States, a building up of capabilities for endogenous development.

Internships have been provided to the staff of the APEID Associated Centres and the National Commissions for UNESCO to receive practical training or to work on specific aspects relating to documentation and information, at the Library and Documentation Unit of ROEAP, for four to five weeks each.

Teacher Education Development Under APEID

During the last 25 years, teacher education and the training of educational personnel has been one of the most frequently discussed topics by educators at all levels of education in the region. It was during this time that the governments of the region engaged themselves very extensively and deeply in reorganizing their educational endeavours and redefining educational goals.

The changes in concepts and practices in education, the redefinition of educational goals and demands of development have brought about several significant changes in the roles and functions of teachers. For example, the teacher is not merely a transmitter of knowledge, nor is he a source of all knowledge in any subject. The teacher today has as much to learn from the environment around him as the students themselves. He cannot, therefore, function in isolation from the community. At the same time, he has to shape and mould the minds and tastes of pupils under his charge so that they can assume the roles and functions of future leaders, in a situation where these functions and roles are constantly undergoing change. This requires qualities of adaptability to changes, resourcefulness and responsiveness in the pupils. Guiding the pupils in this way is possible only if the teacher himself is endowed with these qualities in an adequate measure. The teacher preparation programmes, therefore, required to be designed, keeping all these needs in view.

The response to the changing characteristics has to be reflected adequately in the creative character of education and training itself. In such a situation, the programmes of teacher preparation and the training of educational personnel cannot have any limitations in time. These situations require new directions in which teacher education programmes are being oriented, making significant departures from the traditional forms of teacher preparation and training.

It is noted that continuous renovation and development in education has taken place during the past 25 years in the following four areas: (i) education and training as basic human needs enabling young people to be productive and self-fulfilling; (ii) education as means for meeting other various needs such as health, nutrition and shelter; (iii) education as an essential activity contributing to sustained and accelerated development; and (iv) education as a means to promote individuality and respect of children.

First, the approach to education as a basic human need implies that education cannot be limited to schooling and even less to what happens in schools. There are diverse sources of learning; the home, the family, the social and cultural life of the community and its world of work. The education process is seen as related to these diverse sources in different forms. The school programme is broadened and enriched by the learning resources derived from the community, with learning in school taking place in combination with work and social activities. Learning in school and learning outside thus form a continuum. This perception has prompted many countries in the region to initiate programmes of non-formal education as complementary to the formal education system.

Second, education as a means for meeting other basic needs includes the development and sensitization of the education systems to respond to new problems and to the accelerating pace of societal change. Education in a development setting has an influential role to play in the provision of other basic needs, nutrition and health services, for example. Education enters, or should enter, as an essential component in all organized efforts to speed up development. Malnutrition and undernutrition affect the learning capacity of infants and children. Improvements in nutrition can greatly improve the educational gains and ultimately productivity and income.

Then there are new problems with which the society may be faced. The capacity of an educational system to respond dynamically to such new problems and challenges is a measure of education's role in national development. In relation to most of these problems, education is called upon to perform a consciousness raising function and to provide knowledge, skills and trained manpower to deal with them. At another level is the wide field of modernization based on science and technology education. These programmes have certain innovative features in common, in addition to stressing basic teacher skills: (i) the emphasis on the role of the teacher as a development agent as a community leader working as a member of the team of development agents in an area; (ii) the emphasis on understanding the learning problems of children and young people from the deprived and disadvantaged population groups and for determining the techniques of learning/teaching most suitable for the learners; (iii) the emphasis on cultivating knowledge of the development processes of economic and social problems, of non-formal and other modes of

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education and of community participation and mobilization; and (iv) the emphasis on ensuring that teacher trainees are in direct contact with the milieu in which they will work and training is conducted close to real life situations.

Third, education as a sustaining and accelerating force in overall socio-economic development includes such an element as the development of productive skills. The role of education in the generation of productive skills involves relationships between general and vocational education and the interlinking of general education and productive or socially useful work experiences. In almost all developing countries, education policies reflect a profound concern about the 'bookish' nature of the learning that takes place in the schools with the result that the process of learning is isolated from the context of action and work and the learners on leaving school find themselves ill-equipped with productive skills. In a growing number of countries in the region educational programmes have been evolved for work-oriented education in which productive work and general education are integrated and combined. This interlinking of education and productive work is not a substitute for vocational training in the sense of preparing students for specific occupations. It is intended to provide exploratory experiences in the world of work and social living which give a foundation on which occupational training can be built and career choices made. This contributes to character training and to the acquisition of manual skills by upgrading manual work, seen as part of the integral training of young people. Productive work-based educational programmes can introduce profound changes in the relationship between education and development. They are also the most challenging to the existing established education systems in the developing countries. The role of teacher education is critically important in these programmes. Since the content of work-based education programmes is necessarily derived from the local socio-economic environment, the teacher assumes a key role in curriculum development. Teacher preparation for education-work programmes calls for a wide range of skills and competencies including in particular the role in mobilizing people's participation and community expertise.

Fourth, education as a means to promote individuality of children is seen in the current classroom activities of children. An important change being implemented in classrooms as well as education

systems in recent years throughout the region is the attention given to the individual child. The intention of curriculum reform programmes is to develop learning activities where children work alone or in small groups; but teacher training is vital if these activities are actually to take place.

The critical importance of teacher education thus has been recognized. The practice of a pre-service training by itself has been no longer an adequate preparation for the teaching profession. Teacher preparation programmes have been conceived as a continuous and co-ordinated process in which an initial professional training as a fundamental stage is being followed by in-service training at regular intervals throughout the professional career of a teacher.

UNESCO has recognized that the preparation and training of teachers and educational personnel has been one of the most important areas of educational innovation for development. This has been articulated in the seven programme areas of the Asia and the Pacific Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID). In the area of teacher education and training of educational personnel, APEID has, over the last 11 years, carried out co-operative studies, exchanged experiences, undertaken survey studies of teacher education, developed handbooks and manuals for teachers and held regional seminars and advanced level national workshops.

Though the emphasis in the first cycle programme of APEID (1947-1977) was mostly on the training of teachers, the second cycle (1978-1981) saw a shift to extend the scope of the activities under this area to cover teacher education and other educational personnel.

As the education systems in the participating Member States are undergoing changes, and even more fundamental reorientation is being planned for the future, the focus of the activities in APEID's third cycle (1982-1985) has shifted to professional support services and training of educational personnel at all levels. The activities in this area are focused on strengthening structures, organizations and methods for preparing and updating staff competencies to meet changing needs, and providing professional support based on research and evaluation.

The fourth cycle (1987-1991) in this area of activity will concentrate on professional training including professional support services and distance education.

Educational Planning and Management

In the 1960s, the approach to educational planning in the region was dominated by the idea that a primary function of an education system was to provide trained manpower. The role of education was considered important for the training and mobilization of human skills. In practical application, the 'manpower approach' affected the development of education in a variety of important ways. For example, secondary and higher education came to have priority over first-level education, formal training systems over non-formal systems, and the expansion of educational facilities was put under restraint.

Widening scope of educational planning. Much of educational planning at the earlier stage was preoccupied with models and projections based on such elements as enrolment ratios, repetition and drop-out ratios, pupil/teacher ratios and unit costs. These were then used to determine the magnitude to which education systems were to grow over a specified period of time and within certain constraints imposed by the availability of resources. It was assumed that the improvement of pupil/teacher ratios or the proportion of trained teachers to untrained teachers or of non-teacher costs to the cost of teachers' salaries would result in desirable changes in the content of education and its quality. Educational planning thus tended to be an exercise in having 'more of the same', a linear extension of an existing system and a buffer against the currents of change.

The decade of the 1970s witnessed a widening of the scope of educational planning. Basically this had been activated by problems which had their origin in the social, and even political, milieu. It may be noted that these were the problems which tended also to be ignored in the economic models from which the earlier generation of educational planners borrowed heavily.

For example, there was the question of gross inequalities in income which disfigured so many societies in the countries of the region. The education systems tended not only to reflect these inequalities, but also to perpetuate them. Problems of poverty were found in conjunction with problems of educational deprivation and inequalities in educational opportunities.

Then there was the problem of unemployment, the abundance of human resources which were not productively engaged in many societies. The increasing seriousness of the problem of unemployment called in question the purposes and objectives which the existing education systems were designed to serve.

Yet another question that loomed large was of the fact of rapid population growth and the consequent young-age-composition of the population.

Problems such as these had brought the spotlight back to the basic questions in education which preoccupation with projective models had obscured: Education for whom? What kind of education?

The viability of the education systems, as they were, could no longer be taken for granted. This had led to an increased interest in, and exploration of, 'non-formal' education. Essentially, this was a search for new resources of learning in order to reach the widest commonality of the population. Non-formal education was seen as a counterpoise to the selective and screening function by which institutionalized education lived and was perpetuated.

More and more, therefore, an education plan — whether as a part of a national development or as an independent plan — was viewed as an expression of a government's total strategy for meeting the learning needs of the people, in-school or out-of-school, through formal schooling or non-formal education, for individual advancement as well as for serving the collective needs of all the people.

Institutional mechanism. In the decade of the 1970s, organizational mechanisms for educational planning had been established in most of the countries of the region, though their structures and functions varied according to the administrative and political set-up in each country. Educational plans in all the developing countries formed a part of the overall national development plans. The earlier situation of isolation in which educational plans stood to other development plans was no longer a live issue. The techniques of educational planning suited to the conditions of the developing countries were also being progressively developed.

Educational research became increasingly linked to educational planning. Along with educational planning, the mechanism for the management and administration of education was also strengthened.

Management development. There were a variety of signals which called attention to the inadequacies of the then existing administrative structures — the performance gap between plans and achievements; the communication gap between policy formulation processes and implementation machinery; the apparently restricted capacity to respond to new tasks without a sense of crisis; and excessive preoccupation with procedures at the expense of task objectives.

Several countries initiated budgetary reforms based on the principle that modern budgeting techniques were a cornerstone of efficient planning and management in education. Traditional rules and regulations governing the educational service had been reconsidered by some countries with a view to enhancing the efficiency of educational administration. An increasing emphasis on training of educational personnel in planning and management also figured prominently in most reform proposals. Institutions for staff development had been established in most countries.

There was a growing realization that efficient educational management must mean a management geared to innovation and change. Administrators were, therefore, being trained for change, and such training was intended to prepare them not only to adapt to change, but to initiate and carry out change in an administrative climate of creative autonomy.

* * *

The Third Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning in Asia (Singapore, 1971) recommended the creation and strengthening of national machinery for assessing human resource requirements for development; development of National Perspective Plans at the national level; and the strengthening of educational planning machinery through improved educational planning techniques and training programmes. As a means of mobilizing regional co-operation for this purpose, UNESCO proposed the establishment of the Educational Planning and Facilities Unit as an integral part of the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia with a mobile team of specialists, financed under its Regular Programme Budget.

UNDP and UNESCO jointly constituted a mission in 1972 to assess the interest of governments in several inter-country program-

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mes for education in Asia, including the proposal for the establishment of the Educational Planning and Facilities Unit. The mission found that the governments in countries of the region not only supported the creation of the Unit but accorded high priority to the service functions of technical assistance, studies and training, both through group training courses and individual internships. Thus, UNESCO established the Educational Planning and Facilities Unit in January 1973. It was at that time organized in two co-operative services, namely:

- a) Educational Planning, Management and Statistics Service (EPMS); and
- b) Educational Facilities Development Service (EFDS).

Beginning from January 1973, the Educational Planning, Management and Statistics Service (EPMS) of the Regional Office took over the function of training educational planners and administrators, which, in the previous decade, was carried out through the UNESCO sponsored Asian Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, New Delhi, India. The main functions of EPMS include the following: (a) training; (b) development of teaching materials; (c) research and studies; (d) advisory services; (e) documentation and clearing house functions; (f) statistical studies; (g) publications.

EPMS functions as facilitator and catalyst amongst specialists and national institutions/programmes engaged in the advancement of educational planning and management in Member States in Asia and the Pacific with a view to developing a regional co-operation in research, development and training in the field of educational planning and management.

UNESCO and Educational Buildings in Asia and the Pacific 1960-1986

The recommendations of the Karachi Conference of Universal, Free and Compulsory Education of 1960 began to put some figures on the vast numbers of school children to be educated in Asia. The 1962 London conference on educational buildings provided UNESCO with some important advice on just how to go about helping governments to provide suitable accommodations. UNESCO efforts to turn the printed resolutions into classrooms and school

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desks has now spanned a quarter of a century and its centre of action can be traced from Bandung, Indonesia, to Colombo, Sri Lanka and finally to the UNESCO Regional Office in Bangkok, Thailand.

In the original mandate, UNESCO was to concentrate on research on primary school buildings where the needs were the greatest. Throughout much of Asia, in those days, the numbers of primary school buildings were far too few to accommodate the large numbers of school age children. If the governments were to copy the best of the existing school buildings in the countries concerned they would have had to carry out the construction programme with funds which were sorely needed for teachers' salaries, school textbooks, visual aids and science equipment.

Thus from the very beginning of UNESCO's work in school buildings in Asia, the matter of cost was a preoccupation. The London conference had, however, warned UNESCO strongly against dishing out to the region simplistic solutions of cheap buildings using standardized plans. Instead 'Research and development' through teamwork by designers, cost specialists and educationists, was the cry of the day. Consequently the UNESCO supported Asian Regional Institute for School Building Research (ARISBR) set out in earnest to get countries to think creatively about their own building and furniture needs rather than to copy 'cook-book' solutions.

Fundamental research was undertaken in determining average body sizes for Asian children, optimizing hearing conditions in open hall classrooms and accurately calculating the amount of natural light available in the sky. Applied research concentrated on arranging spaces in such a way as to make teaching more efficient and learning more effective.

The knotty problem of lowering costs so that new schools could be afforded by even the poorest countries was raised in every one of the studies. Finding out that Asian children were smaller than European and North American children meant that chairs and desks needed to be smaller to be comfortable and as a bonus this saved valuable timber. Careful study in full scale situations revealed that a substantial amount of space in classrooms was not being used and therefore need not be built. (At that time furniture and building standards in many Asian countries were simply copied from those of highly developed countries). Improving hearing conditions in open hall schools again reduced the need for costly partitions, but more

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importantly made it possible to easily 'adjust' the sizes of classrooms so that they could reflect closely varied class sizes which might be 80 in grade I and eight in grade V. This too reduced the required floor area of school buildings.

One monumental undertaking was the secondary school costs study where 100 secondary schools in 14 countries (five of them in Asia) around the world were analyzed in great detail to determine how the resources were being used and to identify where savings could be made. The main conclusion of this study was that the greatest potential savings would be through increasing the utilization of existing spaces. In many schools, the simple rearrangement of the timetable to a 'subject based' system from a 'class based' one could double the school's enrolment. It was also found that verandahs and covered walk ways accounted for a significant amount of the total space of the schools and yet they contributed nothing to improved teaching or learning. The use of cheaper building materials and adoption of new construction techniques was also investigated and further potential savings identified.

Research was certainly not the only concern of ARISBR. Group training and advisory services to the Member States of the region filled out the activities and all work was meticulously written up and disseminated.

In 1972 when the first ten years of UNESCO's work in the field was coming to a close a major publication was prepared. This book, *School Building Design Asia*, summarizes the work of ARISBR which had resided for two years in Indonesia and seven in Sri Lanka. To this day, the book is used throughout the region as the most basic and comprehensive reference work available on the design of both primary and secondary schools.

The following year saw a major redirection of UNESCO's efforts in educational buildings. Resources for research were pared substantially and the staff reduced in numbers. However, by bringing the nucleus of the UNESCO team to the Regional Office for Education in Asia (later Asia and the Pacific), the educational building design specialists were placed side by side with teacher educators and educational planners together with the existing staff who had competencies in educational research, curriculum development and documentation.

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In this new environment, emphasis was placed on helping Member States to apply the results of research. Rather than holding training sessions aimed at providing a broad knowledge of the field to classes of trainees brought together from a number of countries, the new direction was to provide tutored, in-service training for national personnel. Trained persons who had already attended training courses were brought to the UNESCO Regional Office where they could work through a project which was linked to major educational policy reforms in their countries.



Five Burmese trainees made up of two teachers, an engineer, an architect and a UNICEF officer, together solved a series of design problems by arranging school furniture cut outs, during an in-service training course held in the Unesco Regional Office.

The evolution in the team's work followed the change in environment. In place of the research laboratory environment of the old fair building in Colombo they worked in a modern office environment. No longer could professional theories be resolved by calling the carpenter over to build a full-scale mock up of a furnished classroom nor could they build a classroom exterior wall which provided security at night and tilted up during the day to become a sun-screen. (One of ARISBR's younger and more creative colleagues narrowly

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escaped injury when this experiment collapsed in a pile of broken timber!). To make up for this separation from 'hands-on' research the new Educational Facilities Development Service of UNESCO Bangkok began to spend much of its staff time in the field working shoulder to shoulder with professional colleagues who had completed the in-service training and were now struggling with turning plans and reports into large numbers of buildings, desks and chairs.

There was, however, some continued concern with research. Some centred on security; how to make educational buildings safe from fire, earthquakes, hurricanes, floods - and design mistakes which lead to accidents when schools are in use. Other research has been done on making better use of outdoor spaces for teaching, ecological demonstration, playgrounds and sport.

These 25 years have seen the development of large and effective school buildings organizations which have, in a number of countries, been able to close in on the targets set in Karachi. In other places, work is achieved through co-operation between the Ministry of Education and other organizations such as public works, local government or the communities themselves. Their work has been facilitated through the substantial assistance received from multilateral and bilateral sources.

Looking across the region one can see that about half the governments of the region working directly in co-operation with UNESCO have been able to substantially improve the cost effectiveness of their educational buildings and furniture. Several million children work daily in these new schools in Iran, Afghanistan, India, Maldives, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, Nepal, Burma, Bhutan, Thailand, Lao, Viet Nam, Indonesia, Philippines and Tonga. Almost all other Member States of the region have benefited from training or the application of ideas contained in the publications.

A fresh round of research and development work is just getting under way in some 17 countries which are participating in a new project known as Development of Educational Facilities in Asia and the Pacific. This project is an extension of UNESCO's normal work under the regular programme but is financed by an external donor, AGFUND. The aim of the project is for countries to develop prototypes which will be followed by massive construction programmes. By now the countries have sufficiently developed their own capacities



A primary school built by a Nepalese community according to the design developed by The Ministry of Education, UNESCO and UNICEF working together in a village

to carry out these experimental projects with a minimum of intervention from UNESCO. The UNESCO-AGFUND assistance is being used to cover unusual research costs, visitations to other countries carrying out similar work and in some cases, external consultants. The regional office's supporting team finds itself doing less drawing these days but rather making increasing use of a personal computer.

Some of the problems touched upon by the Karachi conference are still with the region. This can be seen by the number of countries which are preparing prototypes for improved, low-cost primary schools. Others are harbingers of the future – how to use computers to do a better and less costly job of planning, designing and constructing educational spaces; upgrading the standards of old physical facilities; and (who would have believed it in 1960?) making use of surplus primary school space which is a by-product of effective family planning and consequent declining enrolments!

Population Education

UNESCO's Regional Population Education Service in Asia and the Pacific derives its mandate from the existence of population pressure which is impinging on development efforts and people's quality of life in the region. It is to be noted that nearly 60 per cent of world's population live in Asia and the Pacific. An FAO sponsored study estimated that 168 million people in Asia are already in areas where the carrying capacity has been exceeded, and that one third of the total 900 million hectares is in the critical zones.

Since the late 1960's, the feeling has been that humanity cannot remain complacent with rapid population growth. A multi-sectoral effort is imperative to contain population growth. Hence, there was a felt need for educational action to help alleviate the population problem. As early as 1968, during the 15th General Conference, UNESCO recognized the need to contribute to a multi-disciplinary effort to solve the population problem. Again, the General Conference of UNESCO at its seventeenth session adopted resolution 1.221 authorizing the Director-General to pursue and undertake activities designed *inter alia* for the promotion of population education.

The corner stone. In Asia, the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia organized a Regional Workshop on Population and Family Education in Bangkok in 1970, which established the first major landmark on population education in the region. The definition, objectives and strategies of population education evolved, and the sample curricular materials developed in the Workshop served as take-off points for the formulation and implementation of population education in countries of the region.

One of the recommendations of the 1970 Workshop was for UNESCO to constitute a Regional Team on Population Education. By 1972-1973, that Team was formed and still exists. The functions of the Team are categorized into (i) advisory services; (ii) organizing regional seminars/workshops; (iii) development of national capabilities; and (iv) facilitating the flow of population education materials.

The programmes of the Regional Team are planned on the basis of the needs and requirements expressed by countries of the

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region at consultative seminars held every four years. The major developments in population education in the region are reflective of the changing needs and requirements identified by the Member States in those Regional Consultative Seminars. It is to be noted that each regional activity (e.g. seminar, workshop) addressed a problem area faced by many country projects. Action programmes that represent a solution to such problems invariably mark development epochs in population education. Some of these major developments are briefly discussed below:

Objectives. More and more countries now state the objectives of population education programmes in support of the country's population policy. This is important as very often the effects and impact of the programme is assessed in terms of its contribution to the realization of the country's population policy. Likewise, since the ultimate aim is to institutionalize population education in the educational system, the objectives of the programme are being linked to the country's educational goals.

When most of the programmes started, much of the content was demographic concepts and measures. Today, in most countries, demographic content is still there but is viewed as a factor affecting or affected by development and aspects of quality of life. Most of the countries with explicit anti-natalist policies have included family planning education as a component of population education, especially in non-formal population education. In a few countries, sex education is also an emerging content area of the programme. In a few countries, the population policy borders on pro-natalism, and hence the programme has shaped up more as family life education.

Core messages. In many countries, at the start of the programme, population educators were over enthusiastic, characterized *inter alia* by the formulation of ambitious sets of population content derived from demography, population studies, and population-related social and natural sciences. Such population content was proposed for inclusion in textbooks. However, textbook writers picked only a few isolated instances of population content from what had been proposed, as the school curricula were already overcrowded. The population content was then spread too thinly in different subjects. Likewise, population content was integrated with too many non-formal education programmes. In so doing, the message tended to be diluted and rendered less effective.

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To remedy the situation, a UNESCO Regional Workshop organized in 1984 developed core messages of population. It also developed prototype learning materials illustrative of the integration of population education messages in two or three subjects, preferably in big units or chapters of textbooks. Likewise, prototype learning experiences, focusing on core messages, were developed for non-formal education programmes.

Evaluation of effects and impact. When country programmes were launched, the priorities were materials development, training of teachers and field workers and the teaching of population education. Evaluation was focused more on efforts and outputs (e.g. number of materials produced, number of teachers and field workers trained, and number of students taught population education). Today, there is an upsurge of concern for assessment of effects and impact of the programme on students in-school, and out-of-school youth and adults.

In 1985, UNESCO ROEAP organized a Regional Training Workshop on Evaluative Research in Population Education aimed at developing (i) process skills among the participants; and (ii) a manual on evaluative research in population education.

Publishing at UNESCO ROEAP

The Publication and Printing Unit of ROEAP is part of the supportive services of the office like Administration and Library and Documentation. It does not have a budget to initiate projects in the Member States and only rarely has Publications itself written the manuscripts that later become books. Basically, Publications makes available its services to **other** units in the different fields of competence of ROEAP (and these units finance their own publications).

The publishing programme had its debut in 1962 with a three-sheet, six-page duplicated newsletter, named plainly 'NEWS LETTER'. Today it looks so humble with its faded paper and dog ears, but a lot of effort must have gone into that project. Without doubt, the production of this small newsletter stretched the system in those early days: and to produce a book was out of the question.

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The first proper book, a final report on the First Conference of Ministers of Education in Asia (held in Tokyo in 1962) had to be produced outside.

The lack of sophistication in the Printing Unit printing of that era was recalled by Mrs. Desiree Chotirawe the longest serving staff member of ROEAP. When some staff members went to the printshop to do some on-the-spot proofreading, they were constantly disturbed by the printer's ducks which walked freely around in the printshop!

Historically, Publications together with Library and Documentation as well as Statistics date back to 1962, when they were set up as a semi-independent unit with a separate head under the name of the Regional Centre for Education, Information and Statistics. The next year Publications and the other services were integrated fully in the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia as separate units. In those days, the office was situated in a graceful Thai-style three-storeyed wing of the Ministry of Culture in Sanam Sua Pa, very centrally placed in Bangkok. The Regional Office took possession of the new premises in Sukhumvit Road in 1970.

Although begun in 1962, the entire set-up of Publications only gathered impetus in 1966 when a number of periodicals were launched and publishing was stepped up to some 25 main titles per year. The 'flagship' was — and some would say still is — an early issue of the book in your hands, 'The Bulletin of the Regional Office', first issued in 1966 as a semi-annual publication averaging about 150 pages. In 1973 it became an annual publication with a volume amounting to double that of the earlier issues. For a number of years, the Bulletin and other main documents and publications of ROEAP were bilingual (English and French) on the request of five Member States, in which the second language was French. This practice lasted until 1975, from which point only the English version continued.

When one sees the 25 issues of the Bulletin, published over the last 20 years, it is an expression of an impressive collective task, that everybody who was involved can rightly be proud of. Volume I, No. 1 of the September 1966 Bulletin was entitled *Review of Educational Progress in the Asian Region*. Since then, 24 more issues (plus special issues) have been added, covering all major aspects of education in Asia; and also the Pacific since 1980. The issues have focused

on educational planning, administration and research for primary, secondary and higher education in urban as well as rural areas. Four issues have dealt with science education, two with literacy and adult education and one each with population, environmental, distance and technical/vocational education. Educational buildings and facilities were also dealt with in one issue.

The former 'Supplement' to the Bulletin became a publication in its own right in 1973, when it was published as *Education in Asia and the Pacific: Reviews, reports and notes*, and it continues to be published annually. This publication has proved to be an indispensable tool for any educationist including education ministers, planners, academics and educators who do not have the time to read all the offerings of new publications within the educational field but on the other hand want to be informed about what is going on in education in the region. Many of the reviews have sparked off a desire for a closer encounter with the original.

While these are some of the oldest 'regulars' of ROEAP, many others have joined the ranks since then and individual studies, reports and directories are too numerous to mention. From 25 titles annually 20 years ago, the output has risen to about eight major titles per month or around 100 a year today. Since 1973, 289 publications have been produced for APEID alone, with a total of 137,629 copies. Quality has also improved over the years, concurrently with the substantial increase in output.

Training and advisory missions. In addition to production, Publications has, over the years, provided basic training in printing techniques, printshop management, editorial policy, design and graphic arts to a number of groups and individuals from the Member States. The Publications Officer also — on request from Member States — undertakes missions to countries in the region to advise on technical matters within publishing and printing and participates in an advisory capacity in meetings and seminars in the different aspects of book development.

The hardware. Not only has the quantity of items to be produced increased over the years; so has the print-run, the number produced of each title following the growth in the mailing lists which the office has expanded over the years. Likewise, the printshop, which started off with a duplicator over in the corner of a room, has

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now grown into a fairly modern and very smooth-running set-up comprising three small offset presses, and the accompanying equipment.

It was Publications that showed the rest of the Office the way into computers. In 1984 Publications was equipped with an IBM displaywriter system to maintain a computerized record of publications progress and also to do the type-setting of certain jobs. The ease with which the displaywriter was purchased was in marked contrast to the purchase of its first electric typewriter. In the early 1960s, when Publications applied to Headquarters to be equipped with such typewriter for type-setting purposes, the answer was that only for medical reasons could the use of electric typewriters in this far away UNESCO outpost be justified. One very bright secretary overnight found she had developed a severe pain in her wrist, due to nothing else but the use of a manual typewriter. The doctor could certify that he had never seen anything like it! So Publications had its first electric typewriter as a forerunner of those in use today (the type-setting of this Bulletin is done on the IBM Electronic Composer).

The software. With the manifold increase in the publications output, one could expect a constant rise in the number of employees over the years. However, this has not been the case. Ever since the beginning, the unit has comprised one professional staff member, the Publications Officer (who has occasionally been assisted by an Associate Expert since the end of the 1970s), the publications production assistant, two typists, a graphic artist, one printer and a junior clerk. Another printer and a mimeograph operator (who is in fact a well-trained printer) were appointed as part of the establishment of the UNFPA funded Population Education Programme in 1972. There are still no — and have never been — real editors and proofreaders (except at the time when main publications were produced bilingually; a translator was then working in Publications). Over the years, all the Publications Officers, Mr. W. L. Williams (1962-1963), Mr. R.G. Spector (1964-1965), Mr. William A. Simpson (1966-1981) were UNESCO Headquarters staff members until they decided to go to greener pastures in the Far East. The only exception to this rule is the present Publications Officer, who joined ROEAP in 1981. Doyen of the preparatory group is Mrs. Gim Bee Phenpimon who joined ROEAP in 1966, whereas Mr. Wisit and

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Mr. Charun are the old hands of the production group (the latter employed way back in 1963). Others have not (yet!) put in the 20 years of faithful service which it takes to be mentioned here. However, from the point of view of logic as well as experience, you cannot find many other places where output has tripled without resulting in a heavy increase of staff.

Publications — Part of a whole

The publishing and printing activities ROEAP have, from a very modest start, grown to constitute a major element in the actions of the office. The works published by the office not only offer a reflection of the activities which have been undertaken in the past and will continue to take place, but also serve as one of its main instruments of information and development within the task, with which the office was entrusted from its very beginning: to promote regional co-operation in the education field, later also in social sciences and culture. Publications sees itself as part of a whole, working towards the above goal. We lend voice to others and are a bit shy to hear the echo of our own voice. So until the next UNESCO anniversary of a round number is reached, we will concentrate on doing our daily work even better — and not spend more time on highlighting ourselves.



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Cultural Activities

The Office of the UNESCO Regional Adviser for Culture in Asia and the Pacific (RACAP) was established during the 1975-1976 period and located in ROEAP, Bangkok with a staff of two. The Office fulfilled a long felt need for closer contacts of UNESCO in the field of culture with the Member States of Asia and the Pacific.

The Office of RACAP, however, remained without a professional officer for nearly two years (1978-1979) and all functions of the Office and the activities pertinent to this region were handled directly by UNESCO Headquarters, Paris. The limited number of staff has been a constant source of difficulty for the smooth functioning of the Regional Office; in order to overcome it an associate expert has been provided to assist from time to time.

The main functions of this Office are to: maintain liaison with governmental authorities with a view to promoting UNESCO's programme in the field of culture; co-ordinate the execution of UNESCO's projects in the field of culture; assist in the preparation and execution of projects, particularly dealing with cultural studies, cultural development and preservation of the cultural heritage; identify the needs of the Member States of the region and to co-operate with them in the formulation of policies and the planning of programmes relating to culture; encourage and promote regional co-operation stimulate regional and sub-regional projects; and execute programmes and activities, reflected as decentralized to this Office in the PAD 1986 Culture Sector.

Methods of work. The Office works as an extension of the Culture Sector of UNESCO Headquarters, and the activities carried out by this Office in the field of culture form an integral part of UNESCO's programme as authorized by its General Conference. The Culture Sector, UNESCO Headquarters provides financial and technical assistance.

UNDP has also been a great help in cases where international campaigns for the preservation of historical sites could not be launched for a variety of reasons. Preservation and restoration of the Herat Monuments in Afghanistan; Pagan monuments in Burma; Paharpur and Bagerhat Monuments in Bangladesh and some others



have substantially benefitted from the generous help provided by UNDP on the basis of Project Documents formulated with the assistance of UNESCO as executing agency.

In order to assist Member States it has been a policy of UNESCO to provide experts to study, in depth, the problems faced and to suggest suitable plans of action to overcome the situation. During the period 1975-1985 the Regional Office fielded 21 consultant missions led by internally acknowledged experts to 14 different countries of the Region. Sri Lanka, Burma, Thailand and Bangladesh, were the countries which received the majority of the consultant missions. China, Korea, Japan, Philippines, Malaysia, Nepal and Viet Nam also received more than one mission. Most of these consultants studied the problems of preservation and conservation of the cultural property both movable and immovable, establishing of museum laboratories, documentation of the cultural property, planning of a new museum, assisting national archives and undertaking feasibility studies on various aspects of culture including the development of a regional mechanism for training of cultural administrators. The recommendations of the consultants were found quite helpful by the Member States.

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Support given for research and study. Most of the Member States in Asia and the Pacific are developing countries and need assistance. The Regional Office provided support for at least 14 studies and research projects on various subjects of UNESCO's field of interest. The projects included such important fields as national cultural legislation; establishment of a regional mechanism for the training of the cultural development personnel; preservation, documentation and promotion of performing arts; research on ancient manuscripts of history and culture; recent archaeological discoveries; studies on traditional technologies; select bibliography on the Malay World of Southeast Asia; and financing cultural development. The support provided by UNESCO resulted in the publication of a number of scholarly works and reports and better understanding of the culture and the people of the Region and led to fostering better relations between the nations.

Seminars, workshops and meetings. One of the major functions of UNESCO is to provide a forum for the intellectual dialogue between its Member States. The organization of seminars, workshops and meetings in the field of cultural thus constitutes a major activity of the Regional Office. These were mostly organized through the National Commissions of the Member States by the institutions specialized in the concerned fields. The seminars, workshops and symposia were attended by intellectuals, specialists and experts from within and without the region and subject matter deliberated upon ranged from various aspects of regional and individual country's culture including performing arts, music, oral traditions, arts, preservation and presentation of physical as well as non-physical heritage, historic cities, various crafts, cultural industries, training of cultural personnel, heroes in classical literature of various countries, documentation and dissemination of cultural information, classroom use of the artistic and cultural heritage, arts festivals, participation in the commemoration of anniversaries of heroes and the effects of mass communication on culture. The meetings were also held in connection with the international consultative committees, working groups for International Campaigns, Regional Advisory Committees for various regional or sub-regional cultures, and the study of national laws for protection of cultural property etc.

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There have been 58 such seminars, workshops and meetings organized since the inception of the Office, held in 18 different countries of the region.

Training, study visits, and rescue operations. Assistance in the form of financial, technical and intellectual support was provided to some Member States in their effort to improve knowledge and skill of their professionals as well as technicians working in the field of culture. To strengthen and improve facilities for organizing training programmes for various categories of cultural personnel, the following institutions were also provided assistance: National Research Laboratory for Conservation of Cultural Property, Lucknow, India; the SPAFA (SEAMEO's Project for Archaeology and Fine Arts), (a) Sub-Regional Training Centre, Thailand (Underwater Archaeology), and the (b) Sub-Regional Training Centre, Indonesia (Preservation and Restoration of Ancient Monuments); and the Asian Cultural Centre for UNESCO, Tokyo, Japan.

Experts from Nepal and Thailand were provided travel grants to undertake study visits to various projects in the field of culture in countries of the Region. In 1975, financial and technical assistance was provided for emergency rescue operations at Pagan to save important Buddhist monuments which had been badly wrecked by a severe earthquake. Again in 1976 Swyambhu Nath Stupa in Kathmandu, Nepal was seriously threatened by landslides and UNESCO provided financial and technical assistance to rescue the monument on an emergency basis.

Publications. The Regional Office arranged publication of the reports of some of the seminars/workshops; sessions of the Advisory Committee for the Study of the Oceanic Cultures; sessions of the Advisory Committee for the Study of the South East Asian Cultures; sessions of the Working Groups of Sukhothai Historical Park Projects, Hue Monuments, Cultural Triangle, Sri Lanka and Master Plans of some of the International Campaign projects. Besides this, the Regional Office has also been assisting in the regular publications of four Newsletters.

Social and Human Sciences

The new emphasis in development that puts 'Man' at the centre has carved out an important role for the social and human sciences. The 21st General Conference of UNESCO, held in Belgrade in 1980, felt convinced that, 'the social sciences have a role of the first importance to play in clarifying the complex problems that face societies and mankind as a whole, in an increasingly acute way', and emphasized 'the responsibility incumbent on UNESCO within the United Nations system to harness the resources of the social sciences to a search for the constructive solutions to present difficulties'.

Social and human sciences in Asia and the Pacific are at a crucial turning point of growth and adaptation. More and more countries, and within them, more and more universities, are granting recognition to social sciences by introducing their teaching, and by inducting social scientists in programmes of social and economic development. With the enlarged base for social sciences and the growing and differentiated demand structure for social science skills, the need to strengthen and reorient social science infrastructures is strongly felt in the countries of the region. The emphasis on the questions of relevance and indigenization of the social sciences that are currently being discussed are, in fact, a part of the new urge for endogenous development. Social sciences will be able to contribute



Regional Training Seminar on Social Science Research Methodology. Seoul, Republic of Korea, March - April 1985

towards evolving a strategy of endogenous development only when they are themselves developed endogenously.

Through its Regional Unit for Social and Human Sciences in Asia and the Pacific (RUSHSAP), based in Bangkok, UNESCO has, over the past ten years developed a programme to portray the social science scene in Asia and the Pacific. This Programme has three components: (i) overview of the social science situation in various countries; (ii) review of growth points of, and trends of research in, individual social science disciplines; and (iii) survey of the status of teaching of social sciences in professional education.

This programme has resulted in some useful publications. For example, four volumes under the title *Social Sciences in Asia* (surveying the situation in 21 countries) have been published in the UNESCO series (Paris) on *Reports and papers in the Social Sciences* (Numbers 32, 33, 35, and 42). Four volumes under Programme component (ii) — survey of individual social science disciplines — have been published on political science, on sociology and social anthropology, on International Law, and on economics. Similarly, under Programme component (iii) — teaching of social sciences in professional education — UNESCO's Regional Office in Bangkok has published the first volume on *Social sciences in agricultural education* which surveys the situation in eight countries of the region. The Bangkok Office has also published a research monograph titled, *Social sciences: In response to policy needs* (1980), a status report on *Studies on women in Southeast Asia* (1980), and another on *Organization of social science information and documentation*, surveying the situation in 11 countries of the region.

The second area of UNESCO's action relates to strengthening the social science infrastructures in the Member States and creation of social science networks within the region. UNESCO assisted in the establishment of the Association of Asian Social Science Research Council (AASSREC) which now has membership from 12 countries, and has become a very effective forum for generating debate and discussion on issues relevant to social sciences. It has come out with several publications based on research, and on regional symposia and seminars.

UNESCO has also organized a series of training seminars on the development of social sciences, as also on the social science contribution to development. Besides this, UNESCO has encouraged

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cross-cultural research projects both through AASSREC, and under its own regular programme. A regional network of social science information and documentation centres, acronymed APINESS, has recently been launched.

In the area of status of women, a study on *Women in the Villages, Men in the Towns* has been published, and another on *Women: the Domains of Decision* has been initiated. Efforts are afoot to promote women's studies in social sciences for which meetings are organized, and institutions are encouraged to develop teaching materials. Currently a regional directory of women social scientists, and of institutions engaged in research on women is under preparation.

In brief, UNESCO's social and human science programme in this region is geared to meet the following:

1. the need to indigenize social science perspectives, involving increase in research output by indigenous scholars and the use of national languages;
2. the need to enhance the status enjoyed by the social sciences in the university curricula;
3. the desirability of promoting a wider use of social science knowledge and of the services of social scientists by policy makers and administrators;
4. the need to enhance availability of resources for social science research, and for their publication;
5. the need to strengthen intra-regional linkages; and
6. the need to establish and strengthen rapport and communication between the producers and users of social science knowledge.

UNESCO's role is catalytic in character, and through its intervention, awareness about social sciences in Asia-Pacific has increased.

REMINISCENCES

1968

C.T. Crellin

The UNESCO Regional Office in Bangkok had already acquired some of its reputation in Paris when I arrived at the Asia Hotel in February 1968. As so often, the reputation of an office included a number of over simplifications, prominent among these was a failure to recognize the corporate, collegiate and personally supportive spirit among the personnel.

This omission was corrected very quickly when I was welcomed at the hotel by a young Japanese staff member and his family. During the next two weeks the office was revealed as a group of people with knowledge and concern for education in Asia.

At the end of 1968 there was a meeting in Bangkok which brought together educators from all over the Region. To someone only familiar with the insularity of a national (in fact sub-national) education system this meeting was a revelation. Political differences between nations at that time involved armed conflict, yet arguments between educators from warring countries dealt with topics such as whether to teach science subjects separately or in an integrated way. Once the arguments were resolved, the respect shared in debate became friendship at lunch time.

Many of the patterns of future success for the Regional Office were established in 1968; or were further developed. Among the more prominent were the following:

- a) the preparation of a relatively brief draft report before the end of the meeting; and
- b) recognition of national autonomy and therefore acceptance of different ways to achieve educational goals.

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Many of the participants at the 1968 meeting continued a working relationship with each other and the office for all the years that have followed, many as staff members of the regional office. 1968 may not be the first year when educators working on one aspect of education, in this case science education, shared experiences but for many countries it was a year when sharing experience resulted in the improvement of many national education systems. For example, one country revealed difficulties and a possibility of failure when new curricular material was introduced in rural schools following trials in relatively privileged urban schools. The country concerned made the necessary corrections but at least one other avoided the error so honestly and professionally exposed.

The Regional Office has grown and developed as a human institution and will continue to succeed because of the strength of relationships established. Continuity has been maintained by the presence of many long serving staff members. Prominent among these have been the local staff. They have every right to be proud of what has been achieved.

Funds for APEID

E.R. Prabhakar

'Oh, isn't it nice to be frisked so early in the morning', Mrs. X greeted Latif and me as we entered her office in the U.N. Plaza on the second morning of our New York mission. Latif was the Chief of the Project in Bangkok for the Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID) and its go-between in Paris. On that day, as on many others, there was some sort of political agitation in front of the U.N. building and there were additional security measures.

It was in the spring of 1973. Mr. M'Bow who was then the Assistant Director-General of Education had agreed to Mr. Raja Roy Singh's proposal that Latif and I should be sent on mission to New York to break the impasse with UNDP on APEID. The Project Document had been submitted and re-submitted to New York thrice without getting anywhere near to approval. In fact, we seemed to be drifting even further apart.

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Reminiscences

The idea of sharing education experiences was first mooted in a regional meeting of National Commissions of UNESCO in Teheran. APEID was unanimously recommended in an education ministers conference at Singapore in 1971 and authorized by the General Conference of UNESCO in 1972 at Paris. It would have appeared to almost anyone that the Project had an excellent pedigree. But not to UNDP, or at least not yet.

During the usual kick-off meeting with the UNDP hierarchy the previous morning, a messenger arrived from Mr. C.V. Narasimhan, the Under-Secretary General of the U.N., with a ticket for me to a U.N. concert that night. Without in any way disclosing that I was just a tennis acquaintance of his and without batting an eye, I asked for a



A. Latif, E.R. Prabhakar, Raja Roy Singh

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second ticket for Latif. This interlude was most impressive as could be perceived in the slight shift in posture and tone of our senior UNDP colleagues. It was an auspicious start, at least it seemed so to an Indian mind.

Mrs. X, in whose custody the two of us were committed for the rest of the day began to gradually, very gradually, come around and turn a willing ear. Just when we thought that assent was near, Miss Kit McKittrick, the then Director of Relations with Member Organizations (RMO) at Headquarters in Paris, popped in. With every intention of helping the two of us, she dropped a number of big names, big UNDP names, she had just seen and would be seeing again. Mrs. X bristled. The set-back was completed and Latif and I had to start all over again. It is always better, at the official level, for a male to tackle a female; though the opposite, more often than not, produces contrary results.

'Why don't you use your well established centres for teacher training in Manila, education planning in New Delhi, and education facilities in Colombo instead of setting up a new centre in your Bangkok Regional Office'?

'These establishments have become national centres', we tried to explain, 'and the international staff have been withdrawn to Bangkok'.

'You have cannibalized them, then', she chided. We were hauled over the coals, lectured and lampooned.

'Why should UNDP pay your Bangkok office staff salaries, for four experts to be located there when the work, you say, would be done at Associate Centres? Why is higher education not included in APEID? What is there for the Least Developed Countries (LDCs)? *de novo*.

It was getting to the close of the first day and the only solution left, we thought, was to invite Mrs. X for cocktails that evening. After that, and with no further interventions, it was cock-a-doodle-do and APEID received its first million dollars from UNDP.

**The Invitation that Changed My Life
(or: Thank You, UNESCO)**

Denis Segaller

'How would you like to join UNESCO in Asia as a consultant on these chemistry-teaching film loops?'

The question was shouted up at me from the bottom of the stairs by Dr. Robert Maybury, a prominent American chemistry educator in UNESCO's Division of Science Teaching in Paris, late one wintry afternoon in London at the beginning of 1965, as he was leaving the Shell Film Unit after seeing some of my chemistry-teaching films. It was to be a question that would change my entire life, in a far more fundamental way than either of us realized.

'Just try to stop me!' I shouted back . . .

The UNESCO Pilot Project for Chemistry Teaching in Asia was the middle one in a trilogy devised by Al Baez, UNESCO's then Director of Science Teaching at its Paris Headquarters. Dr. Baez' 'grand design' for uplifting the teaching of science in developing countries from routine learning-by-rote to a vibrant, living spirit of enquiry, was basically very simple: take the three major disciplines of natural science - physics, chemistry and biology - and allocate one of each to the three main developing regions of the world - Latin America, Asia and Africa. Each project was to be **regional**, gathering together teachers and educators in the particular discipline from as many as **countries** as possible within the region, in a suitable city where the project centre would be located.

The three projects were also to take place in three successive academic years (October to July). Thus, there had already been the UNESCO Pilot Project for Physics Teaching in Latin America, based in Sao Paulo, Brazil, during 1963-1964; the Pilot Project for Chemistry Teaching in Asia, to run from 1965-1966, was the one for which Bob Maybury was now inviting me to be the film consultant; then there would be the Pilot Project for Biology Teaching in Africa (1967-1968).

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The 'grand design' devised by Dr. Baez envisaged leadership of each Pilot Project by an outstanding educational innovator of world status in each particular discipline; and also, the making and testing of 'new-look' teaching aids of the time, which ordinary high-school teachers in developing countries could make and use themselves at the lowest possible cost. One such method was 'Programmed Instruction'; another was the eight-millimetre cartridged film loop devised by Technicolour in the U.S.A., which was simply inserted into a special projector and then ran continuously, repeating itself as many times as required without rewinding. This was where I came in, for I had already been making chemistry-teaching film loops at Shell for the Nuffield Science Teaching Project; and it was precisely the same kind of film loop which Bob Maybury was now inviting me to introduce to Asian chemistry teachers and educators.¹

A sideline on Al Baez might not be out of place here. He came to see me at the Shell Film Unit while on a visit to London, not long after Bob Maybury's initial invitation. It was our first meeting. Suddenly, Dr. Baez opened his large despatch-case. 'Are you familiar with my daughter's work?' he asked, and gave me an L.P. record of folk-songs by the world-famous Joan Baez . . . Quite a family, those Baezes.

The first big question, of course, was - where was the Chemistry Project to be located? Various university towns and cities in India and Sri Lanka were being considered, but Bob Maybury warned me throughout the spring and early summer of 1965 that nothing definite had been decided. Then finally he phoned me one day from Paris: 'Denis, it's all fixed. The Project's definitely going to be located in Kuala Lumpur . . .

Well, you know how it is. At the eleventh hour, it was switched to Bangkok. As far as I know, the main reason was that the (then) UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia was, as it still is, located in Bangkok.

So, in the late afternoon of 2 October 1965, I arrived at Bangkok's Don Muang airport, where I was met by Larry (Professor E. Lawrence) Strong of Earlham University, Indiana, the Project

1. Segaller, Denis. "Film loops - a modern aid to learning", *Bulletin of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia* 6(1):112-120, September 1971.

Director and creator of the innovative Chemical Bond Approach (CBA) teaching method in the U.S.A.; Professor Frank Halliwell, Director of the Nuffield Chemistry Teaching Project, with whom I had already been working closely in London; and Professor Shafgat Siddiqi from Lahore University in Pakistan. (I had also met the other two before; Dr. Siddiqi had visited me in London, and UNESCO had sent me in February of that year on a briefing mission to the U.S.A., where I visited Dr. Strong, as well as Peter Robinson, who had been the film consultant on the Sao Paula Physics Project).

During the next few days, other members of the 14-nation Chemistry Project began arriving in ones and twos at the Bangkok hotel which was our temporary base: Dr. Ruth Ben-Zvi, a biochemist from Israel; Mr. Nakanishi from Tokyo; Khoo Chin Hock from Malaysia; U Tin Pe from Burma; Dr. Cleofe Bacungan and Dr. Betty Guevara from the Philippines; Jay Ratnaïke and Mahinda Ranaweera from Sri Lanka (Mr. Ratnaïke has for many years now been on the staff of the Regional Office as Educational Adviser); and Dr. Peng. Altogether, there were about 25 Project participants, as far as I can remember, all of them active in chemistry education in their own Asian countries, plus a few experts such as Frank Halliwell, and consultants such as Le Xuan of Viet Nam (Programmed Instruction) and myself (film loops).²

The Project was housed in three or four rooms, including a large chemistry laboratory, in the newly-built Chemical Technology Building at Chulalongkorn University, Thailand's oldest and most distinguished institution of higher learning. And it was under the protective care of Dr. Sunt Teelnakumpuch of the University's Chemistry Department and the Project's Local Counterpart Director - a brilliant chemistry and thermodynamics teacher, whose main concern however was the Project's welfare, and whose notebook was perpetually crammed with the minutest details of doors that wouldn't close properly, air-conditioners that didn't condition, and so on.

Dr. Strong was one of the kindest and most patient men, it has ever been my good luck to work under. Whatever the participants' problems, they could always take them to him; he would listen quietly, then suggest a way round the difficulty.

2. Op cit. p. 112.

My own function was exactly what was stated on my contract: film **consultant**. I had no power to 'order' anyone to take an interest in film loops; the interest had to come from their side. In our first week, Dr. Strong called a meeting of all participants, at which I explained and demonstrated the principles and usefulness of film loops as a visual teaching aid. Someone asked the key question: 'How much does the projector cost?' When I told him, he said, 'Oh, my country is very poor - we couldn't possibly afford to put those in our schools'. Everyone else looked equally negative, or so it seemed, and my heart sank. As the meeting ended, I thought, 'Oh, dear - I'm not going to get **any** volunteers! I shall have to go back home to England!'

Almost in tears, I took myself off to that lonely spot, the men's room. And there, bless his heart forever, was Jay Ratnaik. 'Mr. Segaller', he said, 'I'm interested in your film loop project. I'd like to join your group, if I may'.

... 'If I may' ... Sweet music indeed! I'd got one volunteer - I was in business! Suddenly the birds started singing again ...

Two minutes later, in the Project Office, Betty Guevara of the Philippines approached me. 'I'd like to join your group and learn more about those film loops you showed us', she said. **Two** volunteers! And almost immediately afterwards another lady, the late Dr. Nida Sapianchai, a charming young Thai, said, 'I'd like to join your group, too!' **Three** volunteers!

In the end, there were five, as Israel's Ruth Ben-Zvi and Malaysia's Khoo Chin Hock also joined us. From then on, roughly once a month, we sat down round a table, they produced their own teaching or self-learning topic which they'd thrashed out among themselves beforehand, and we discussed how best to put it into teaching-film form. Our meetings were always smooth and good-humoured, and in fact we all became firm friends.

When it was time to film each subject, I called in Pearl and Dean, the local advertising film producers, as they had all the right equipment and technical know-how for the camera-work. And invariably, when they first switched on their big 5 kw lights, they blew all the fuses. Other participants working in the other rooms, whose power went off too, said, 'Ah, Denis is shooting a film again'. But somehow, with ingenuity and goodwill, the power was restored,

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and the problem - like all the Project's many teething problems that first year - was overcome.

I say, 'that first year' because although the Pilot Project for Chemistry Teaching was, like the other two Projects, originally planned only as a one-year affair, quite early on the Thai Ministry of Education began to express a lively interest in it, and ways and means were sought to enable it to continue into what turned out to be four or five more years of the UNESCO Chemistry Project - still at its original quarters in Bangkok.

I was asked to stay on as part of the extended project (or, more accurately, to return, for in July 1966, I went back to London, and from then on I was sponsored by the British Government under the Colombo Plan; in fact I had to have a medical examination in London to see if I was fit for duty in Bangkok, having just spent the greater part of a year there!). So, I continued to serve the Project

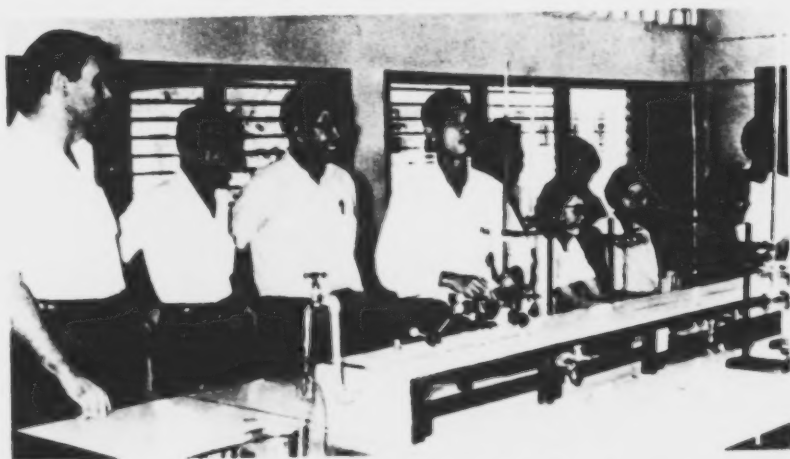


Khoo Chin Hock (Malaysia), the late Dr. Nida Sapianchai (Thailand), the author, Dr. Betty Quevara (Philippines), Mr. Lee (Korea). The group, which made their own chemistry-teaching film loop with the author available as consultant if needed, are posed in the same pattern as the fire syringes in the background which formed the theme of the film.

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Mr. Jay Ratnaike (Sri Lanka), now ROEAP's permanent Educational Adviser, explaining a chemical detail to a Thai teacher during a course held in the project's second follow-up year.



Dr. Watton (extreme left), the Project's Director in its second and third follow-up years (1966-1986) with a group of Thai chemistry teachers during a course held at the Project's quarters in Chulalongkorn University. Second and third from left are Dr. Sjamsal Achmad (Indonesia) and Mr. Eddie Boey (Malaysia)

Photographer: Denis Segaller

under its new Director, Dr. Ted Watton from Australia; later still, under its third Director, Professor Jaroslav Zyka of Charles University, Prague, Czechoslovakia. And still later under its fourth and final Director, Prof. Amando Kapauan of Ateneo University in the Philippines.

And all the while, the Project was becoming less international and more Thai . . . when the Thai-UNESCO Institute for Promotion of Teaching Science and Technology was established, many of the Thai science educationalist became pioneers in this institute including its Director for several years, until her recent tragic death, that same Dr. Nida Sapianchai who had been one of the first three volunteers to join my film loop group in 1965. The Institute has produced completely new and highly successful school science syllabuses, in the same spirit of enquiry-by-the-pupil which had fired the imaginations of men like Al Baez, Frank Halliwell, Bob Maybury and Jay Ratnaike back in the 1950s and 1960s.

By that time, I had dropped out of the picture, and as far as I know, film loops have long since been superseded by video-tape cassettes . . . But by then I was firmly wedded not only to Thailand, but to a Thai wife. And in 1974, I joined the staff of the Bangkok Post, taking up an entirely new journalistic career at the age of 59. But that's another story.

Not quite, however. At the beginning of this article, I said that Bob Maybury's invitation was eventually to change my entire life. While at the Bangkok Post, I started my own weekly column on the fascinating aspects of Thai life, called 'Thai ways'. That, in turn, brought me into contact with Buddhism. I became a Buddhist, ordained as a monk for a month in 1976, and now meditate every day, and will continue to do so until the end of my life.

That's what has changed my life so fundamentally. And for that alone, I owe UNESCO a very deep and lasting indebtedness.

Thank you, UNESCO.

Ancient History in ROEAP Publishing

W.A. Simpson

You are educated when you can answer 'yes' to the following:

1. Can you entertain other people?
2. Can you entertain yourself?
3. Can you entertain an idea?

Phrases very close to these were spoken by an African participant to a UNESCO meeting in about 1961 and published in its final report. The words brought home to me the inspirational function of UNESCO's educational publishing.

Millions of words about education, in thousands of publications, have been published by UNESCO, Bangkok. Too many words . . . and careful distillation of them would make the essence more inspiring and more functional than the great mass. Yet the collective inspiration of many, many people, from many parts of the world, has been recorded and diffused through the papers and books which the Regional Office has produced. And who can estimate how many hearts have been inspired to seek learning for peace by the best of these words? How many good ideas have been entertained?

Memories like leaves in a stream that float through time:

. . . An all-night typing and proofreading session at old Sala Santitham during the 1965 Ministers' Conference in the small hours of which the writer was introduced to the wonders to **Tako'** and **Khao Man Kai** by Khun Charatsri - or was it Khun Supimol or Khun Desiree - and Khun Boonchuay.

. . . The first quarterly Bulletin, pounded out over seven consecutive seven-day weeks in 1966, conforming - well almost - to then DG Rene Maheu's restriction of 64 pages: we had a 66-page Bulletin with an 85-page 'statistical supplement' between the two covers. Among other things, this demonstrated Mr. Raja Roy Singh's flexible way of rigidly conforming to bureaucratic dicta.

. . . Publishing our first Statistical Review for the Region (in about 1967), typed mainly by Mrs. Betty Phenpimon and proofread

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largely by Khun Wisit, and in which every single digit in thousands of long numbers in scores of tables over hundreds of pages corresponded to the figure in the manuscript.

Seeing, with our colleagues, every meeting report as a monograph on an aspect of education, and trying to make it attractive and genuinely useful. This called for careful editing, a search for additional information and statistics, corroborating unusual data, and illustrating the text with graphs, charts, and photographs. (The texts came to Publications already thus illustrated from Vickery's school-building architects, among others.)



... Moving from Dusit to the Darakarn Building where we had at first an acre of space apiece, and later so little office space that it seemed necessary to rent an annex across the street. Parkinson's Law?

... Once the so-called perfect binding was available, producing books — at first printed one-at-a-time on a small Multilith offset press — which brought attention to ROEAP's publications from around the Region and beyond. They not only met certain visual standards, but were strong on accuracy — even if it meant reprinting a batch of pages in order to get the result right.

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. . . Later, with the Population Education Unit, bringing out a five-volume Source Book in colour that so pleased the ADG/ED that he sent copies to UNESCO offices in all regional offices with a comment to the effect that 'we could use it as a model'.

During the 16 years I worked in Bangkok, it was a matter of pride on the part of all of us in Publications that any conference, thousands of titles in an old-fashioned labour-intensive way in the spirit of 'Small is Beautiful' because, first, it enabled us to achieve a hand-made quality in our books and, second and more important, because this answered a basic need in seeking to fulfil the ideals of the United Nations by resisting unnecessary automation and thus providing paid work for some of the Thai people whose guests we were, and are.

SECTION THREE
EDUCATIONAL REFORMS IN THE REGION

A. COUNTRIES IN TRANSITION

The base

India is today in the throes of launching a New Education Policy. Over the four decades since the country became independent and responsible for its development, there were two comprehensive proposals for educational reform — the Sargeant Report and Plan (1944),¹ and the Kothari Commission Report and Plan (1966),² and the two sectoral reform proposals, the Radhakrishnan Commission and Plan for University Education (1948)³ and A.L. Mudaliar Commission and Plan for Secondary Education (1953).⁴ The two features of these reform proposals were first that they were based on the usual careful and elaborate work of a commission ranging over several years, and second that they proposed developing the educational system broadly on the pre-independence structure, with relatively minor changes and restructuring. The basic problem was that the system was devised to produce the few clerks and junior officers needed to run what was essentially a law and order administration, and it was assumed by the successor government of Independent India that by just expanding this structure, the goal of universal (primary) education could be attained. And it was not.

This time around, the methodology of the education reform movement in the country has been drastically changed. Instead of appointing a Commission and depending for reform on a report, which would take up to eight years to be formulated and executed, on this occasion a brief factual and readable state-of-the-art document on education today in India was produced. The 70-page document

EDUCATION REFORM PERSPECTIVES IN INDIA



Malcolm S. Adiseshiah

*Bulletin of the
Unesco Regional Office
for Education
in Asia and the Pacific*

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bears the title, *Challenge of education — a policy perspective*.⁵ This compares favourably with the 1,079 pages of the Kothari Commission report. *Challenge of education* analyses the current educational data and indicates the serious gaps and broad policy areas needing attention; its foreword concludes: the document's aim is 'to provide the basis for a nationwide debate which would facilitate the formulation of the New Education Policy'. This invitation was quickly seized upon and in the course of six months ending December 1985, some 230 seminars, symposia and discussion groups were held all over the country, including a few national seminars on planning and administration problems, the finances required for the New Policy and a core curriculum. The results of these spontaneous exercises in which students and teachers, trade unions and employers, academicians and politicians participated, are now being assembled at a focal point in Delhi, and being translated into the New Education Policy Document which will be placed before the Parliament and the Central Advisory Board of Education for review and approval.

Two prefatory comments about the emerging New Education Policy need to be made:

First the distinction between education and the education system needs to be recalled. Education is learning; it is the process of internalizing an external event in order to understand it and control it. The educational system is the mediatory infrastructure of teachers, students, schools, colleges and universities, libraries, laboratories, playgrounds, curricula, textbooks, examinations and diplomas. The New Educational Policy deals with the educational system and not with education *per se*. Further it must also be recalled that while education — that is, learning as an autonomous intellectual and intellectualizing activity — is an independent variable, the education system is a dependent variable, dependent on the political economy of development.

That leads to the second comment, affirmed by the base document for the New Education Policy, *The challenge of education*, that political parameters set the pace of educational development everywhere. From Adam Smith and John Stuart Mill's call to governments to invest in education as a means of making their citizens intelligent and orderly; to Gandhiji's *Nai Talim* as a means of universalizing education based on village arts and crafts because India lives in its villages; on to Ronald Reagan's and Margaret Thatcher's

questions about the value being obtained in return for the large volume of money being expended on education; and Rajiv Gandhi's insistent and expressed faith that education is the key to lead the country into the twenty-first century; education is seen as the hand maiden of the political decision-making process. For India, that political decision has been made, and it is for the academicians and educators to translate the New Education Policy into a realized programme.

The present on the basis of the past

With all its limitations and even as an extrapolation of the past trends and systems, education has made a spectacular quantitative leap forward in the past three decades at every level of education as Table 1 indicates.

Table 1. Three decades of education development

	1950-1951	1982-1983
1. Literacy rate		
Male	24.95	46.74
Female	7.93	24.88
Total	16.67	36.23
2. Adult Literacy rate		
Male		54.84
Female	12.9 (1961)	25.68
Total	19.3	40.76
3. Number of Literates	60 million	248 million
4. Primary Schools (I-V, 6-11 years)		
Number	209,671	490,000
Teachers	537,918	1,365,431
Students per cent of enrolment in age group		
Boys	60.8	99.0
Girls	24.9	66.2
Total	42.6	83.1
5. Middle Schools (VI-VIII, 11-14 years)		
Numbers	13,596	123,300
Teachers	85,496	846,772
Students per cent of enrolment in age group		
Boys	20.8	52.1
Girls	4.3	27.2
Total	12.9	40.0

Table 1. Three decades of education development (cont'd)

	1950-1951	1982-1983
6. Secondary/Higher Secondary Number	7,300	52,279
7. Polytechnics	—	515
8. Colleges	798	5,246
9. Universities	27	140
10. Total students	28 million	114 million
11. Total teachers	750,000	3,200,000
12. Expenditure	Rs. 1,143 million	Rs. 51,859 million

Source: Ministry of Education: *Annual report*.

Approximately 12.50 Indian Rupees (Rs) = One US dollar

The table shows that in three decades there has been a four-fold increase in the number of literates, over a doubling of primary schools, a two-and-a-half times increase in teachers, a seven-fold increase in secondary schools and a similar increase in colleges and universities, with a four-fold increase in educational expenditure at current prices.

There are however serious lags in this quantitatively exhilarating profile.

First the minimum physical infrastructure of over one-third of the primary schools is seriously lacking in over two thirds of the 17 major states which form the Indian union. The Table 2 shows the percentage of facilities provided under six essential items in each of the 17 states referred to above.

A second problem is the low holding power of the school. The Kothari Commission reported in 1964 that in primary schools the drop-out rate was 56 per cent for boys and 62 per cent for girls, with two thirds of drop-outs occurring in Class I.

The situation has not much improved since, as Table 3, on the following page shows. The document, *The challenge of education*, reports that the retention rate for Classes IV was 33.5 per cent in the 1968 batch and 38.6 per cent for the 1974 batch. It reports that a state-wise analysis of drop-outs for the period 1964-1965 to 1979-1980 shows a marginal 7 percentage points decline, with a higher record of drop-outs in four states and concludes 'low retention and high drop-out rates continued to erode the gains from educational

expansion. The magnitude of wastage is emasculating the educational development in the country.⁶

Table 2. Percentage of facilities provided

State	Permanent building	Drinking water	Lavatory	Black-board	Play-ground	Library
P e r c e n t						
Andhra Pradesh	45	41	5	48	51	30
Assam	7	33	22	21	44	4
Bihar	24	28	2	49	16	34
Gujarat	74	51	23	100	64	65
Haryana	87	65	37	77	80	87
Himachal Pradesh	12	38	5	66	59	77
Jammu & Kashmir	23	34	6	85	40	44
Karnataka	72	23	4	85	46	40
Kerala	78	87	79	93	69	59
Madhya Pradesh	51	24	7	51	46	7
Maharashtra	64	47	13	80	49	37
Orissa	23	26	23	50	34	9
Punjab	55	79	32	43	68	49
Rajasthan	65	53	16	64	46	39
Tamil Nadu	70	65	24	87	78	82
Uttar Pradesh	71	44	15	54	48	23
West Bengal	20	48	16	71	41	53

Source : *Fourth All India educational survey 1978-79*

Table 3. Drop-out profile in primary education
(Figures in thousands)

Year	Gross enrolment in Class V	Number of children who successfully complete Class V	Rate of children who successfully complete Class V with reference to enrolment in Class I in the corresponding cohort
1975	7,849	6,609	31.29
1976	8,188	6,894	31.08
1977	8,375	7,502	
1978	8,476	7,137	32.48
1979	NA	8,588	32.89
1980	NA	8,253	32.89
1981	NA	8,252	32.89
1982-83	NA	8,369	32.89

Source : a) *Handbook of educational and allied statistics*, Ministry of Education, New Delhi, 1983.

b) *Demographic and allied statistics in India*, NIEPA, New Delhi, 1980.

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A third problem is the interface between education and employment. On the one hand, there has been in the last two decades, a 45 per cent increase in employment in the professional and technical category, which has been filled by higher education completers, about one fourth with general skills, and three fourths with specific skills. On the other hand the education employment profile is reflected in the unemployment data. The National Sample Survey for 1956-1957 shows that graduate unemployment was 4 per cent of males and 6 per cent of educated females. In 1972-1973 male graduate unemployment shot up to 7 per cent and for females to 10 per cent. And for 1977-1978 male graduate unemployment was 8 per cent and for females 16 per cent, with general education degree holders facing higher unemployment. Unemployment among matriculates was lower and among primary school completers still lower. In other words the higher the level of education, of a person — male or female, the higher the incidence of unemployment that is faced. A recent ILO report rather caustically comments that a university degree is fast becoming a ticket to nowhere. Table 4 illustrates this trend from the record of the Employment Exchanges of the country.

Table 4. Job seekers

Particulars	Month/Year			
	July 1984	Per cent of qualified	July 1985	Per cent of qualified
1. Registrations	719,341		751,300	
2. Applicants on the live Register (at the end of the month (000's))	23,195		25,051	
— those below matric (millions)	11.5	30	12.5	28
— Matrics (millions)	9	40	10.2	42
— Graduates and above (millions)	2	45	2.3	47
3. Vacancies notified for submission action	66,610		60,942	
4. Placements effected	36,162		33,840	

Source: *Indian Labour Journal* and *MIDS Bulletin*.

There is also the problem of the unemployability of the matriculates, graduates and post-graduates which is reported to be more serious than the unemployment rates. The reports of the Director of Employment, the Union and State Public Service Commissions and

the Selection Committees of the schools and universities show not so much an imbalance of over supply in some areas and under supply in others, but of the educated persons not having the qualities of reasoning, capacity for analysis, innovation, and self reliance which every job requires and every employer is looking for. In fact when the Union Government launched in 1973 (and again in 1983) the Rs. 1,000 million educated employment programme, it was found that 60 per cent of the funds appropriated had to be spent on de-schooling the educated unemployed and re-schooling them to make them employable in terms of the general qualities of intelligence, manual and mental alertness which society today requires.

Fourth, educational expenditure in the country presents certain features. The level of expenditure in 1983-1984 at 3 per cent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is low compared to the 4.2 to 6.9 per cent of GDP by the industrialized and other developing countries as reported by UNESCO.⁷ On an All-India basis, 85 per cent of recurrent educational expenditure has been on salaries and salary administration. In some Indian states⁸ 99 per cent of the primary education budget is spent on teacher's salaries, and 95 per cent of the secondary education budget is similarly spent on teacher's salaries. Further, within the total educational expenditures in India, there has been, over time, a decline in the proportion of expenditure on primary and secondary education and an increase in that on higher education as Table 5 shows.

More recent data confirm these trends. Between 1965-1966 and 1976-1977 the share of primary and secondary education declined from 68 per cent to 58 per cent, while that of university and higher education increased from 33 per cent to 42 per cent.

Finally there is the broader question of the non-egalitarian trends in the educational system. The last detailed field survey undertaken in the mid-1960s showed that 80 per cent of high school and college completers come from the top 20 per cent of society.⁹ A more recent survey undertaken in the late 1970s shows that not much progress was made over the 15 years in this class bias, as 70 per cent of the high school places and 80 per cent of higher education seats were taken by the top 30 per cent of society.¹⁰ While education by itself cannot make for equality in a non-egalitarian society, there is the question of how far the education system is contributing

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to this inequality. Certainly the heavy state subsidization of the high school and college education from tax revenues, which are 83 per cent from indirect tax revenues contributed by the poor majority of the country, tends to worsen the inequality situation, inasmuch as it is a form of transfer of resources from the poor majority to the rich minority.

Table 5. Educational expenditure by level

	1950-1951	1965-1966
	%	%
1. First level, i.e. pre-primary, lower primary and higher primary level schools	38.7	32.5
2. Second level, i.e. secondary, special and vocational schools and Board of Secondary Education	25.9	25.3
3. Indirect expenditure on school education	10.9	9.7
Total (school)	75.5	67.4
4. Third level, i.e. universities, research institutions, and colleges of general, special and professional education	15.0	17.2
5. Indirect expenditure on higher education	9.5	15.4
Total (university)	24.5	32.6
	100.0	100.0

Source: Ministry of Education. *Annual reports* and *UGC Annual reports*.

Against this analysis of the present educational system, the emerging consensus for the New Education Policy is clear and heartening.

Universalizing basic education

The New Educational Policy should give the highest priority to universalizing elementary education and liquidating adult illiteracy during the Seventh Plan 1985-1986 - 1989-1990, alongside the various measures used to increase the holding power of the elementary schools to near 100 per cent by the end of the Seventh Plan.

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Much depends on raising the economic level of the parents of the school drop-outs, and the decentralization of the curriculum, supplemented by a national core curricula needed for history and geography learning, to each educational district. The two pre-conditions, poverty alleviation and educational decentralization, are thus parallel political processes. The financial outlay for elementary education will have to increase from Rs. 15,270 million in 1981 to Rs. 40,000 million in 1990. Education of the adult illiterates can be provided by a mass campaign run by students and teachers, or as part of the undergraduate requirement of every student. The first stage of the campaign, which is literacy education, is based on the finding that an illiterate can become literate in six months. In one state, research shows that an adult illiterate can be made literate up to Standard 2 level in five weeks.^{11,12} University and college teachers and students as well as those from higher secondary schools will be involved. This mass literacy campaign will be accompanied by a massive programme of production of reading materials, audio-visual aids and electronically assisted programmes by the eight state Resource Centres. The Adult Education outlay will be Rs. 30,000 million. The first call on the educational outlay will be these two sums, of Rs. 23,000 million plus Rs. 30,000 million during the Plan period.

In secondary education, Classes IX to X will have to be expanded to meet the pressure from universalization of elementary education, and to give students, from all classes of society, access to science and technology. A more thorough pre-vocational socially useful productive work programme should be part of the curriculum of secondary schools, so that every student acquires some self employment skill, replacing the present concentration of education for salaried employment. In a country with a work force nearing 300 million by the end of the Plan, no economic structure can be devised that can provide the entire work force, or even a bare majority, salaried employment. Taking small scale industry and casual domestic labour as well as the organized sector, not more than 25 per cent of the work force is at present on salaried employment. This has a clear lesson for the kind of education (for self employment) that is needed.

Higher secondary education comprising Classes XI and XII should be (a) part of the school system; and (b) divided in each school between the academic and vocational stream on the basis of

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50:50 of the enrolment. It should have admission based on an aptitudes test, should be fee-based for students whose parents earn more than Rs. 15,000 a month, and should replace the present examination system by a system of cumulative records. This particularly applies to vocational stream students, who should be trained up to 80-85 per cent for self-employment.

Liberal arts and science colleges and universities, should be maintained at their existing numbers, and not expanded during the next five years. Admissions should be based on aptitude tests and the curriculum updated along lines of the UGC format. The academic work of the students should be based on the credit system, and include applying classroom learning to conditions in the village or urban slums. University and college education should be fee-based for students from families earning more than Rs. 1,500 per month, and colleges should be freed to devise their own examinations. The one final external examination should be replaced by a system of cumulative records, under the guidance of an accrediting authority, so that the universities, comprising departments of post-graduate learning and research can develop as centres of excellence, the Vice Chancellorship occupying the position of *premus inter pares* rotating among the heads of departments.

The question of disconnecting employment qualification from a university degree is under serious consideration. The motive power for the new system should really be derived from the intrinsic strength of the present system. This calls for a synthesis of the theoretical excellence of the present system with the practical demands of the new system. The university degree should cease to be something that is sought after merely as a passport to employment. It should remain as an index of higher academic interest and attainment on the part of those who have developed a high degree of motivation. The community at large should be willing to concede that university education is not intended for everybody but only for those who wish to seek knowledge for its own sake. School leavers who do not have the aptitude for college education should be helped to seek vocational interests for the greater good of themselves and of society. A democracy functioning by adult suffrage in a predominantly illiterate community permits educational qualifications to be dispensed with for those who aspire for careers in political life. Politicians begin to believe that there is an innate talent for work in

public life which has nothing to do with school and college education; that people with basic intelligence can be fitted into any programme of study; and accordingly everyone is fit for and may enter a university. As long as this specious argument is not rejected, the college cannot be saved from becoming a haven of refuge for those who have not secured jobs, or are too young to find one and have, in any case, no idea what to do with themselves. It is no matter for surprise that under these conditions, colleges deliver into society, year after year, thousands of degree holders who are literally unemployable. It is in this context that a list of the areas of employment for which university degrees are not needed and where training for them can begin immediately after the high school stage, is now under preparation.

In professional education, Rs. 5,000 million should be provided for renewing the science and technology equipment of the institutions; and universities of health sciences should be established in each state to educate and train the kind of medical and paramedical personnel that this country's health conditions demand.

The open learning system has come to stay: for each state, it will comprise an open secondary school system, an open higher secondary system and an open university (with campuses in each university) to provide both correspondence and distance education to those who have qualified for the previous education level and distance education for those who have had no education. This will involve innovations in curricula, syllabuses, printed, TV, radio and electronic media materials lessons, learning methods and assessment systems; which might also revolutionize the formal educational systems.

More broadly, this non-formal education programme is a viable alternative to the slow-moving and somewhat irrational and expensive traditional system. It has the potential to equip young people, as well as adults, with the skills that they need in their everyday lives. Education, in this context, does not take place in a single institution; nor is it confined to a limited phase in an individual's life. The compelling reason for resorting to the methods of non-formal education is that, in most situations, these constitute the most effective forms of learning. Education takes place all the time in an individual's life, whether he plans it consciously or merely lets it happen. The aim of the non-formal scheme is to rescue this process from fortuitousness

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and to impart to it some momentum and continuity of purpose. It exploits also the fact that much teaching and capability for instruction exists outside the core of professional teachers; and there is available a vast panorama of learning opportunities and facilities outside the formalized structure of schools and colleges.

The success of this programme is largely dependent on the willing participation in the educational process, of those employed outside in agriculture, industry, business and civil affairs. As they become involved in decisions affecting the educational programmes, a real breakthrough will have been achieved. In the farms and factories, as well as in the homes, hosts of boys and girls, who are not in school, are engaged in a wide range of occupations. Curricula will have to be built round their work. The situation here will be more real than in a basic school where an artificial work situation has to be created, such as gardening, carpentry or spinning. At a more advanced level, non formal ways of learning such as off-campus programmes, internships, learning contracts, correspondence courses and independent studies will promote the habits of self-reliance that will be vital in a new and novel situation. These programmes will help to bring into the system new bands of motivated persons who were kept away from institutions of formal learning owing to their age, occupation, poverty or other impediments.

Vast possibilities of new courses of study and work that traditional curricula either ignored or were unable to support will be developed. Non-formal education will infuse the dimension of living experience into learning by distributing it both over time and space. The experience gained in implementing it may be brought to bear upon the formal system in order that, one day, a single integrated system is developed that will cater equally to the needs of those who enrol on a full-time basis for a work-oriented learning system as well as to the needs of others who must continue in employment but may acquire such learning within the work process itself.

The financing of the New Educational Policy is probably the most important part of the proposed reform, as it is inadequate financing which wrecked previous reform plans. The New Educational Policy will require finance about five times greater than is presently allocated to education under the five years of the Plan. A major recommendation of various groups has been for a larger

contribution from the state and central budgets, especially the latter. However, the sums that central state governments can earmark will depend on priorities and the possibility of additional resources mobilization. These have been examined in great detail, in the context of the Seventh Plan, and further inter-sectoral or other adjustments would yield only minor additional revenue. There are possibilities of mobilizing additional resources earmarked exclusively for implementing the New Education Policy through the imposition of cesses, levies or surcharges, along with increase in the budgetary contributions of the central and state government. Some of the specific proposals made include (a) surcharge on central excise other than on commodities; (b) surcharge on imports; (c) surcharge on sales tax; (d) levy on agricultural marketed surpluses through regulated markets; and (e) surcharge on mining leases. Some of these surcharges and cesses could be tied to specific purposes. The surcharge or cess on central excise could thus be linked to industrial/vocational education.

Another major recommendation centres around better inter-sectoral linkages and greater co-ordination among the ministries. In particular a proportion of allocation under the National Rural Employment Programme should be specifically earmarked for school buildings. If 25 per cent of the Seventh Plan outlay for this programme could be earmarked for school buildings, this will provide a sum of Rs. 10,600 million. This, along with special grants provided by the Finance Commission, allocations approved in the Seventh Plan for school buildings, and the use of low-cost designs and mobilization of community efforts should go a long way in clearing the backlog of school buildings at the elementary stage. Also specific recommendations have been made in regard to (a) low-cost design; and (b) community contributions for school buildings.

The traditional source of income to the institutions through donations should be further encouraged. In 1950-1951, nearly 8 per cent of the total expenditure on education was met from donations. This is now reduced to 2 per cent, being partly due to encouragement of increased dependence on government. If the community is involved in the management of the institutions and individual donors are encouraged to contribute in a well organized and systematic manner, there is a possibility of improving the income from this source to a great extent. The problem of buildings for schools and

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colleges (including staff quarters) is an acute one. The size of the problem in relation to plan allocations is so large, that current budgeted funds alone cannot tackle this problem. A way must be found for getting building loans from the Life Insurance Corporation (LIC) and other banking institutions. There is a possibility of obtaining loans from LIC and/or nationalized banks for educational purposes and this must be pursued. Another proposal is to provide loan funds to students, particularly by professional and technical institutions; the provision of loan funds to such students could be linked to an adequate increase in the fees charged by such institutions.

There is considerable scope for raising the internal efficiency/effectiveness of the education system. Pulling together the suggestion made earlier, a concerted drive to reduce wastage, (stagnation and drop-outs), and improve standards will go a long way in raising internal efficiency. Secondly there is a need to avoid proliferation of non-viable institutions. Third, the educational grant-in-aid codes in some states under which all schools become eligible for grants-in-aid after a certain period might itself encourage proliferation which means the codes must be changed. To meet the growing demand for secondary and higher education, private initiative and funding should be encouraged. Fourth there is a need and scope for reduction of unit costs at all levels of education by using part-time and local personnel who are available and whose use is very often justified on educational considerations. A local person who is motivated can often do a more effective job, especially if properly trained and oriented. Without detriment to the principle of 'equal pay for equal work' it may be possible to induct a category of teacher assistants or helpers whose qualifications would be lower and whose hours of work would be less. It is certainly of advantage to the more backward areas to obtain the services of more motivated persons tied to the villages. More than cost reduction, it is through improved effectiveness and new innovative models that the educational goals of the New Education Policy can be attained even within resource constraints. The potential of new educational technology should be utilized effectively and speedily for this purpose. Mass mobilization strategies would be particularly helpful in reducing unit costs as well as in improving the motivational climate of the Adult Education Programme.

The New Educational Policy needs also to counter the non-egalitarian trends in the education system which have been earlier referred to — at least to arrest its contributing to social and educational inequalities. For this, two broad instruments are under consideration. The first is the means of financing the New Educational Policy. The main thrust of financing is to be the reduction of state subsidies to high school and college education by charging fees for students from well-to-do families, and through a system of educational cesses and taxes on corporate industry and large farms in order to increase the financial contribution from direct forms of taxation. Secondly the New Education Policy will also provide special compensatory education and educational guidance to first generation learners, and also reduce the class bias in the curriculum and ambience of the school system. One experiment being tried is to establish a model school in each one of the 600 districts of the country, where the best teaching, libraries, laboratories and physical facilities will be available, and in which about 75 per cent of students will be first generation learners. But the first generation learners who come from socially disadvantaged families, who are the majority in the country, cannot catch up with socially advantaged students even with better schooling. Research in India has shown this, which means that to correct educational inequality, the socio-economic inequalities, which give rise to the varying performances of children from poor and rich families, have to be corrected. But that goes beyond the New Education Policy terms and involves political and socio-economic decisions.

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In congratulating UNESCO on its 40th Anniversary and ROEAP on its 25th Anniversary, it should be recalled that while UNESCO was established with only 20 member countries in 1946, today it covers 158 countries in every corner of the world. Although the Asia and the Pacific region is the largest and the most complex region in terms of population, language and culture, the 31 member countries in this region have been co-operating together for the development of education, science and culture within the spirit of UNESCO. ROEAP has been the core agency for the development of education in this region to which I should like to express my high appreciation on this occasion.

In August 1984, the Japanese Government established a provisional Council on Educational Reform as an advisory body to the Prime Minister for the period of three years. It was intended to implement relevant reform in education on a long-term perspective so as to secure such education as would be compatible with socio-economic changes and cultural development of the country. The Council has already presented two interim-reports to the Prime Minister and debates on educational reform are now active among the public.

Education in Japan is generally highly appraised by foreign observers in terms of its well established system and its achievements. Nonetheless, why is educational reform one of the major policy issues and why are people so enthusiastic about educational problems? It might be hard for foreign observers to understand the aims and purposes of to-day's educational reform in Japan.

EDUCATION IN QUESTION — EDUCATIONAL REFORM IN JAPAN



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It is not easy to explain the problems and causes thereof in short. It is necessary to understand the real situation of education in the broad social and cultural context. For that purpose, at least it is necessary to review the historical development of education and to identify the characteristic features of Japanese education which have been cultivated historically.

There were two big reforms in education in the past. The first was put into effect in 1872 in parallel with the Meiji Restoration; the second started after the Second World War in 1947.

The goal of the Meiji Restoration of 1867 was to abolish the feudalism and class system which had existed till then and to establish a modern society to bring wealth to the nation and to secure independence for Japan.

For this purpose, in the First Educational Reform, equal opportunity for education had to be given to all people in order to raise the quality of the nation in general. Moreover, the people's concern for education from a pragmatic standpoint had to be aroused and heightened. Great efforts had to be made, of course, to train teachers needed for this public education system. A standard for education had to be set and the uniformity of education became necessary to some extent.

It is quite natural that Japan, having started late on modernization, followed the advanced Western countries as models. For this reason the modernization of Japan is often referred to as the Westernization of Japan.

The two purposes, that is, to modernize or Westernize Japan, and to maintain independence and heighten the awareness of being Japanese in the people were entwisted together like two strands of cord making a rope in developing education and in bringing out its special characteristics.

At one time more stress was put on the former while at another time more emphasis was put on the latter. The Second World War was the unfortunate result of having the latter stressed to the extreme.

The Second Educational Reform of 1947 was carried out, based on reflections on the earlier reform, to rebuild Japan as a peaceful and democratic nation. Equal opportunity for education

was further advanced, a single ladder-type school system was established and compulsory education was extended to nine years. Fortunately, with the high economic growth of the 1950s and after, and supported by the people's enthusiasm for education, the scale of Japan's education has been greatly enlarged. The enrolment ratio for nine-year compulsory education is 100 per cent, that for senior-high school 94 per cent, while at university and junior college level it is 37 per cent.

This seemingly bright side of education has, as well, its dark side. This dark side has become a source of great concern to the people.

Let us exemplify two major problems in education in recent years. The phenomena of anti-social behaviour, such as bullying in school and school violence; and of non-social behaviour, such as truancy have been exposed. The competition for admissions to senior high schools and universities has been so intense that many pupils are compelled to attend 'juku' (private cram schools which prepare pupils for entrance examinations). These phenomena, involving mainly junior-high school pupils, may be called 'distortions' in education and they have deepened people's awareness of the problems and difficulties involved in our education to-day.

With regard to these phenomena, a number of analyses have been made. It may be stated that the phenomena are closely related to the distinctive feature of Japanese education which is characterized both by its high-level, quantitative development and by the emphasis on improvement of the qualitative level of the average. More specifically, the rapid quantitative expansion of formal education, as well as the general attitude of the people, putting special value on formal equality among individuals, has led to the present situation where all pupils with different abilities, competences and interests are provided equal instruction with similar curriculum, similar teaching materials and similar teaching methods. As a result, relatively slow learners are unable to keep up with classroom learning and are labelled as 'failures', while gifted and talented pupils feel that their classroom lessons do not satisfy their own interests.

Regarding the causes and backgrounds of the present difficulties in education, a number of different analyses may bring about different findings. It would not be easy to draw a single valid conclusion. These phenomena are deeply rooted and correlated with each

other. They are also interwoven, in a complex way, with the present conditions of the family, the school and the community. The Council on Educational Reform pointed out the following causes and explanations for these phenomena:

1. The remarkable economic development in Japan has caused the quantitative expansion of education. It has also promoted a social climate where, in evaluating individuals, too much value is placed on the academic background of each person. In this social climate, competition for prestigious schools and universities — which are linked closely to employment in first ranking businesses, industries and government services — have been intensified. This is the dark side of the merit system relying too much upon one's academic background. Someone called it diploma disease. In this context, most students, parents and even teachers are involved in educational processes where over-emphasis is placed on intellectual or academic training and on the 'deviation value' of student's scores in achievement tests.

2. Although the quantitative expansion of education has diversified the abilities, aptitudes and interests of students, schools have not adequately and flexibly coped with these diversifications. The ill effects of uniformity-oriented education have been exposed.

3. So far, elementary and secondary schools, in general, have not been successful in providing moral education effectively as a result of having put too much emphasis on intellectual education and also because of diversification of values among the people.

4. There are some teachers who lack adequate capabilities and a sense of mission as teachers.

5. Many schools are closed to parents and to the community. Good co-operation among the family, the school and the community is not prevailing sufficiently.

6. The changing employment structure and the progress of urbanization have led to the deterioration of educational functions of both the family and the community. The adverse effects of mass media have hampered the development of a sound personality in the young people.

In view of these past trends and the present-day educational problems, there is an urgent need to review all the advantages and

disadvantages of both the pre-war and the post-war education systems in a balanced perspective, in order to inherit and develop the advantages and overcome and eliminate the disadvantages.

Meanwhile, it can be anticipated that, in the coming years as we move into the twenty-first century, rapid social changes such as the advancement of science and technology and the progress of information technologies will continue to be witnessed. In addition, we shall be required to cope with an aging population and the growing responsibilities of Japan in the international community. We shall have to deal with such other new changes and tasks as never faced before. In the coming years, education must respond to these requirements of the new page.

In short, in order to build up a society that is full of vitality and creativity as well as being relevant to the twenty-first century, planning and implementing educational reform has become one of the important policy issues for the entire government. Recognizing this the Council of Educational Reform identified the major issues it should consider during its working period of three years and in April 1986 the Council presented its second report to the Prime Minister. The report is composed of the following four parts:

In Part I (Basic direction of education for the twenty-first century) the Council analyses the causes of the present grave 'state of desolation' in education in the light of the lessons of history and offers an overview of the basic changes in society and the educational tasks it anticipates will face the country for the rest of this century and into the next. The Council also offers guidelines for the reorganization of the educational system with the transition to a lifelong learning system as the core element.

In Part II (Reform to invigorate education and inspire public confidence) the Council sets forth a basic strategy for education in the home, school and community which will ensure the transition to a lifelong learning system. On the basis of this strategy, the Council recommends a number of reforms: recovery of the educational role of the home; reform of elementary and secondary education; reform of higher education and promotion of scientific research; and promotion of non-formal education.

In Part III (Reform for coping with the changes of the times) the Council recommends a number of reforms concerning specific

issues in education. In making these recommendations, the Council pays special attention to the transition to a more international and information-oriented society.

In Part IV (Basic direction for reforms of educational administration and finance) the Council proposes basic reforms of educational administration and finance including deregulation of education with the twenty-first century in view.

As the Council is preparing a final report, the whole and final picture of educational reform is not yet clear, and it is not appropriate to foresee the contents of further proposals. However, some issues such as the reform on the standard of curriculum at all school levels and reform of the entrance examination system for higher education, both of which have been pointed out by the two reports of the Council, are already under consideration by the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture for implementation as early as possible.

Having remarked as such about the educational reform in Japan, allow me to note my personal views on education reform: one concerns the common view on educational issues in most countries, the other one concerns specific feature of the educational reform now under discussion in Japan.

1. There is no doubt that the educational system of a country is deeply rooted in the history and national character of the country and also closely related to the developmental stage of the country. It cannot be discussed outside this background and environment. However, if one sees in-depth the issues now being faced, there are common and everlasting fundamental issues of education in modern society. The issue is how to bring about better co-ordination, rather than trade-offs, between 'quantity' and 'quality', between 'equality' and 'excellence', between 'uniformity' and 'variety', between 'standard' and 'flexible'. Depending on the country and its stage of development, at one time more emphasis is put on one side while at another time more stress is put on the other. Every country, however difficult it is, is making efforts to bring about better co-ordination, rather than trade offs, between seemingly conflicting sides. And this is the very situation Japan is in at this moment.

2. The third educational reform is now being faced. The first and second reforms were necessitated by external political factors in

parallel with political reforms, aiming at developing society and building the nation by means of education, following the advanced Western countries as models.

The third reform is caused by societal, economic and technological factors and is based upon the reflection of merits and demerits of the past experiences of educational development. Accordingly, the Council has pointed out not only the need to reform the school system but also to revitalize the educational functions of the home and the community. It has also put much emphasis on the comprehensive reorganization of the nation's educational system with the transition to a lifelong learning system as the core element, and respect for individuality as a basic principle. The factors which necessitate the third reform can hardly be solved simply by the reform of the system. It is a revolution of the consciousness of people in general.

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Like many emergent developing nations, Malaysia places special emphasis on the development of the education system for the purposes of nation-building.¹ National unity and equal educational opportunities are the two important goals of education policy which formed the basis of policy actions in the last five-year development plans. The purpose of this paper is to describe the strategies of reforms adopted by the Malaysian Government during the last 25 years and to analyse whether they meet the two overriding goals.

The analysis of reforms will be described along four perspectives. Firstly, it will present the government's action and strategies to provide access to schooling. Secondly, it will also highlight the planning and implementation of new curricula to meet the changing needs in relation to the economic development and manpower demands of the country. Thirdly, it will present a purview of actions to equalize educational opportunities between the urban and rural areas through policy inputs such as financial resources, physical facilities and management supporting services. And finally, an evaluation will be attempted to ascertain the extent to which Malaysia's education system has met the nation's goals.

Provision of access to education

Malaysia inherited a segregated school system when it achieved its independence from the United Kingdom in 1957. One perspective of the segregation was the classification of the school system along four media of instruction — Malay,

EDUCATION AND NATION BUILDING — AN ANALYSIS OF EDUCATION REFORMS IN MALAYSIA 1960 - 1985



Dato' Rahman Arshad

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Chinese, Tamil and English — with secondary level education only available in English schools. The vernacular schools provided only a maximum of six years of primary schooling. This structure, however did vary especially in the rural areas where primary schooling sometimes was only four years. Moreover the Malay, Chinese and Tamil schools were usually attended by students whose mother tongue was the same as the language of instruction. English medium primary schools were mostly in the urban areas, which facilitated the entry of Chinese and Indian pupils because of the nature of their residence to such schools. Secondary education was only available in English, with a very small flow of students from primary Malay vernacular schools through a special Malay Class Programme.

The effect of segregated schooling and varied accessibility to secondary and higher education led to unequal educational opportunities and outcomes between states and ethnic groups. For example, in the urbanized city of Penang the proportion of urban Chinese attending secondary schools in 1948 was 1:24 and for the Malays was 1:48. In the State of Kelantan, which was rural, the corresponding proportion for Chinese was 1:330 and for Malay 1:1,037. From these indicators of accessibility to secondary education, it is clear that the opportunities for the urban Chinese in Penang to have secondary education was at least 13 times greater than the Chinese in Kelantan and nearly 50 times more than the Malays in Kelantan.²

This glaring disparity of access to secondary education between ethnic groups and regions prompted the Colonial Government on the eve of independence in 1955 to form a special committee to examine the educational system and to establish a national education policy for a new direction in development. The committee chaired by the Minister of Education published a far-reaching report which later formed the basis of future policy action. The report, popularly known as the Razak Report 1956, cited two major desiderata: a place in primary school for every child, and a unified educational system which would promote national unity.³

The first goal of the provision of a place in primary schools for all, irrespective of racial origins, became the greatest educational priority of the government. The report states: 'when there is a vacancy in any type of primary school no child shall be barred from admission solely on account of race'.⁴

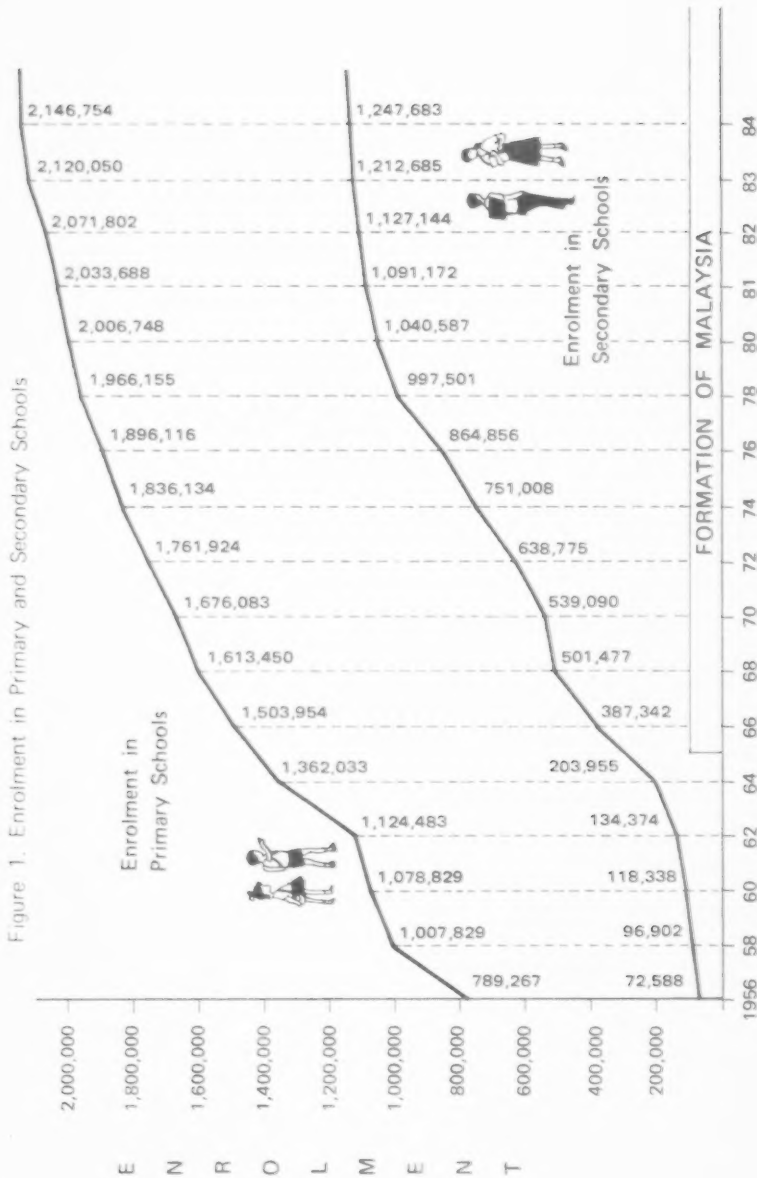
Meanwhile, the number of primary school-age population had increased tremendously and this also brought along an increased public demand for education. As shown in Table 1, there were already four times as many primary level pupils in 1956 as there had been before the Second World War. The increase was most prominent in the rural areas. This enrolment trend and the increased pressure for schooling prompted the Razak Committee to recommend that utmost priority should be given to improve access to primary education. Provision of access to primary education has been the top priority in the government's educational policy action since independence.

After 1960, the spread of primary education culminated in more than 95 per cent of children aged six-plus entering school.⁵ This high rate of participation was attributed to the tremendous effort made by the government to provide access to primary education through the expansion of the construction of schools and classrooms, particularly in the rural areas. As shown in Table 1, the effect of this massive school construction programme was the high growth enrolment of Malay Primary Vernacular Schools which are predominantly in the rural areas.

Once near-universality in primary enrolment had been attained, it was inevitable that a boom in the 'social demand' for secondary and tertiary education should follow. The major constraint for access to secondary education was that secondary schools continued to be concentrated in the urban areas away from the large catchment areas of the rural population. With the number completing primary school growing rapidly, the pressure to provide more secondary places, especially for rural areas, built up. The situation was made worse by the abolishment of the Malaysian Secondary School Entrance Examination in 1965. This meant, among other things, that Standard 6 pupils were automatically promoted to secondary Form I, which consequently led to increased enrolment rates of secondary education. In 1967, there were 161,606 pupils in Form I representing 93 per cent of the enrolment of 172,419 in Standard 6 in 1966. This figure was a great improvement from the participation rate of only about 30 to 35 per cent in the years previous to 1965.⁶ The trend of secondary participation has been maintained and improved since 1966. Figure 1 shows the upward trend of school enrolment over the years.

Table 1. School enrolment by level and language medium
1938-1974

(thousands)					
Year	Malay	Language medium		Tamil	Total
		English	Chinese		
Primary					
1938	57	42	86	26	211
1947	171	57	190	35	453
1956	392	136	291	48	867
1962	501	230	362	64	1,160
1968	607	310	373	82	1,372
1974	942	62	470	80	1,555
Secondary academic					
1938	—	20	3	•	24
1947	—	13	3	•	17
1956	3	59	27	•	89
1962	13	152	34	—	200
1968	136	334	20	—	490
1974	255	428	22	—	706
Higher					
Year	Teacher training	University degree courses		Other	Total
1938	—	—	—	•	•
1947	—	—	—	•	•
1956	1	—	—	•	1
1962	7	1	—	1	10
1968	6	6	—	3	14
1974	6	14	—	14	33



To meet the increased demand for primary and secondary education, the government had to embark on a massive programme to build more primary and secondary classrooms and schools. Since the First Malaysia Plan 1965, 35,475 primary and 18,705 secondary classrooms have been built to meet the demand for access to education. Common and standard school plans were used as a strategy to minimize construction time and cost.

Despite extensive school construction programmes, the Ministry could not cope with the increased demand for classrooms consequent to a rapid population growth. More than half of the primary classes and more than 80 per cent of secondary classes are currently being placed in doubled shifts. Although double shifting is cost efficient, it is detrimental to the delivery of curricula. It results in reduction of instruction time, hampers delivery of extra curricular activities and generates commuting hardships for pupils living far from schools, particularly in rural areas. At present, there is still a serious shortage of classroom facilities to cope with the increased demand for education. The average classroom student ratios are low; 1 classroom : 46 pupils in secondary schools. In certain urban areas, the ratio has reached a critical level of 1:100, which indicates overcrowding.⁷

In short, even with the tremendous efforts to provide easy efficient access to better education, the desired level of classroom to pupils ratio of 1:40 has not been reached. For future action, access to education and the desired level of classroom : pupil ratio will be given priority, especially in districts and areas where they are still below the national average. To meet the budget constraints due to economic recession, standard design and construction costs and norms to increase cost efficiency in terms of investment will be implemented without lowering school quality. Economical standard designs and construction methods have now been established which make the provision of new school facilities faster and more economical. Emergency and public self-help (*gotong-royong*) construction methods are utilized in certain areas. These standards and techniques, which necessitate minimal maintenance, will be utilized to the extent possible in future plans of action to provide access to schooling.

Curriculum reform

The 25 year history of curriculum reforms in Malaysia is a reflection of positive efforts to meet the national goals of unity, economic progress and manpower demands of the country. The special Razak Committee which comprehensively reviewed the education system in 1956 emphasized the need for curriculum reform from one of colonial inheritance to one that 'will satisfy the needs of the people and promote their cultural, social, economic, and political development as a nation'.⁸ The committee stated:

We cannot over-emphasize our conviction that the introduction of syllabuses common to all schools in the Federation is the crucial requirement of educational policy in Malaya. It is an essential element in the development of a united Malayan nation.⁹

The committee recommended the establishment of common content syllabuses for all schools which was immediately implemented. In early 1960, there was also mounting pressure for a substantial expansion and diversification of secondary education to meet the industrialization programme of the country. In March 1964, the government made a major change in the curriculum which was a complete break from the colonial system. Under the new curriculum system, two broad groups of subjects were offered. The core subjects, which all pupils must offer, comprise the National language, English, history, geography, civics, science, mathematics, art and crafts, and physical education. The electives, with specific objectives of developing pupils' vocational skills, include industrial arts, home science, agriculture science and general business studies. The essential feature of this curriculum reform was to provide a broad comprehensive base of subjects to pupils.

With the government's emphasis on manpower development, particularly in science and technology, a Science Centre was set up in the Ministry in 1969. The Second Malaysian Plan (1971-1975) made special provision for the establishment and development of this centre to improve science and mathematics programmes in schools. Part of its major activities was to improve the science and mathematics subject contents in secondary education. The period also witnessed extensive reforms in mathematics and science education. Integrated Sciences for Lower Secondary and the New

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Malaysian Syllabus, based on Nuffield Science for upper secondary level and Modern Mathematics, were introduced in stages to replace the old system. Realizing the need to stabilize and systematize curriculum development, the National Curriculum Development Centre was set up in 1973 to plan, develop and implement new curricular innovations.

In 1979, a special Cabinet Committee made a comprehensive examination of the educational system with a view to strengthening the system to meet future economic, political and social challenges.¹⁰ There has been general concern in the Malaysian society for some years over the quality of offerings and relevance of education because of the 'misfit' between education and the world of work. In addition, concerns were frequently expressed over the disparity of education achievements, with students from the predominantly poor rural districts generally performing more poorly. The Cabinet Committee which published its report in 1979 made special reference to the curriculum deficiency in the school system: namely excessive emphasis on academic curriculum; teachers using formal methods inconsistent with the diversity of students' aptitudes; and shortage of educational resources in primary schools. Specifically, the cabinet committee called for the total overhaul of the primary and secondary school curriculum.

In response to the Cabinet Committee's recommendation, the ministry introduced, in 1983, the *New Primary School Curriculum* (NPSC). The NPSC, implemented in stages during the six years of primary school, aims at the overall growth of an individual including the development of the intellectual, spiritual, moral, affective, tive, aesthetic, social and physical aspects of human personality. It emphasizes the mastery of reading, writing and arithmetic and the acquisition of knowledge and basic skills through attractive and meaningful activities, relevant and useful to students. The pedagogical principles of the NSPC are (i) subject integration under broad headings, namely basic skills, man and environment, moral and spiritual values, art and recreation and manual skills; (ii) remedial instruction for slow learners; (iii) continuous assessment of students' achievement; (iv) group learning based on students' aptitude; (v) activity oriented teaching/learning processes and greater reliance on teacher's resourcefulness and innovation; and (vi) extra circular activities to improve the insertion of schooling into the national socio-economic context at large.

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With the implementation of NPSC, a *New Secondary School Curriculum (NSSC)* is now being developed based on the NPSC lines and is expected to be fully implemented in 1988. The NSSC will be oriented towards general and teaching/learning strategies focusing on citizenship qualities and national unity. It will give special emphasis to relevant knowledge, skills, attitudes, creativity, moral and religious values. The new features of NSSC which the ministry envisages to introduce are: (i) the integrated skills suited to modern living; (ii) citizenship education, and social and environmental sciences; (iii) aesthetic education; (iv) moral and religious education; (v) techniques for the development and production of resource materials; (vi) enrichment and remedial programmes; and (vii) extra curricular activities.

Provision of better educational opportunities

As mentioned earlier, a serious problem of the Malaysian educational system in the 1960s and early 1970s was the existence of unequal educational opportunities which contributed to the disparity of academic attainments among regions and ethnic groups. To correct the imbalances and to identify the problems, the Ministry conducted an extensive examination of the school system, particularly on reasons for drop-out. The Drop-out Study in its Report 1973 discovered that there were serious imbalances of educational inputs — financial, materials, and physical facilities — between urban and rural schools.¹¹ These educational imbalances, pointed out the report, led to the disparity of educational achievement and outcome, with pupils from rural areas performing poorly as compared to pupils from urban areas. To redress the problem the Drop-out Study recommended five major policy actions:

- i) There should be reallocation of State investment in education from upper secondary levels to primary school level of education. This is in view of the fact that primary level education yields greater social benefits than the other two levels.
- ii) To equalize the educational opportunities of the rural poor with their more favoured urban counterparts, annual per pupil expenditure on their schooling must be increased to at least equal that received by the more prosperous urban dwellers.

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- iii) Compensatory educational services should be provided to help remedy early educational disadvantage.
- iv) Priority and publicity should be given to minimizing illiteracy rather than to pupils with distinguished marks.
- v) Educational complexes of substantial size should be developed to service small towns and surrounding rural areas.

These five recommendations had far reaching effects in re-orienting the educational policies after 1975. Various alternative methods were undertaken by the government to improve the imbalances of educational inputs and the disparities of educational attainments. One method was the implementation of the **Textbook Loan Scheme**. The scheme, launched in 1975, provided free textbook loans to all needy pupils. Another method was the expansion of **boarding facilities** to pupils who needed boarding because of living circumstances. The rationale is that pupils from deprived or remote areas would thus have better chances of success in science. For example, in 1976 there were 40,962 pupils accommodated in boarding facilities, either in fully residential schools, in science residential schools, or in centralized boarding facilities. In 1985, about 162,221 pupils were staying in boarding facilities provided by the Ministry, an increase of about 400 per cent from the 1976 figure.

The third method was the **upgrading of supporting services and educational resources** in the school system. The government's policy is to provide schools with resource facilities, including a library and audio-visual equipment and to increase the number of district resource centres. The Educational Television programme was launched in 1972 with schools receiving free television sets; and where electricity supply was not available generators were also provided. An annual library grant over and above the per capita grant was included in educational grants to schools. Guidance services were provided for all schools. In 1980, four Regional Resource Centres were set up to provide supporting services to schools. The provision for health education and rural health services to schools was intensified during the period as part of compensatory education, with particular emphasis on nutrition, eye and dental care.

Lastly, several efforts were undertaken to create efficiency in educational management. Malaysia over the years since independence had spent 6-7 per cent of its GNP on education. Capital

outlays for education, as shown in Figure 2, have also substantially increased, reflecting the government's effort to bring education opportunities even to the most remote parts of the country. This policy has been successful as primary education is now virtually universal and the secondary enrolment ratio is one of the highest in the region (72 per cent). Efforts are now being undertaken to upgrade management and professional efficiency. In 1982, 57 District Education Offices were established as part of the ministry's strategy to delegate some of the supervision responsibilities from the central agency to local levels. Plans are now undertaken to consolidate underenrolled schools. Of about 6,500 primary schools, about 2,400 or 37 per cent are underenrolled schools (below 150 pupils). These schools will be consolidated into more economical units with enrolments of at least 150, wherever possible. Small schools with enrolments less than 150 can be accommodated in consolidated schools. Boarding will be provided, as required, to students who cannot commute from home to schools easily.

Future policy directions

Notwithstanding some of the shortfalls of past educational reforms, Malaysia has largely met the greater part of the national educational goals. Malaysia's main educational achievement is the ability to provide access to schooling for all the school-going-age population. Despite tremendous growth of human learning needs during the last 25 years due to the accelerated pace of economic, social, technological and political changes, Malaysia has managed to provide more options for learning in the school system.

However, it is anticipated that for the next 20 years, the demand for learning needs and curriculum options will be greater. The demand will be exacerbated further by powerful demographic pressures as the population increases to provide a place for every child in the educational system — primary, secondary and tertiary levels. It is expected that Malaysia's ability to provide the growing human learning needs will be constrained by a tighter financial budget due to economic slowdown and the depletion of natural resources. Alternative strategies of educational financing — privatization, higher user fees, and some form of taxation — need to be considered to reduce the pressure on the state. The dilemma is that due to past performances, access to education at all levels can no

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ABSTRACT

Articles focusing on UNESCO's role in educational development in Asian and Pacific countries are gathered in this issue commemorating UNESCO's 40th anniversary and the 25th anniversary of the Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific. Following an overview of educational needs and achievements, current activities of four UNESCO offices for Asia and the Pacific are summarized: Regional Office for Education, Regional Advisor for Culture, Regional Advisor for the Social and Human Sciences, and Office of Public Information. Background of UNESCO involvement in regional educational development is emphasized in articles on population education, universal primary education, eradication of illiteracy, higher education, teacher education, cultural activities, and educational management. Educational reforms in individual countries are subjects of 16 articles; countries discussed include India, Japan, Malaysia, Pakistan, Australia, People's Republic of China, Republic of Korea, Sri Lanka, Thailand, and the Pacific Islands. Article topics include upgrading science education in developing countries, instituting a sustainable literacy program, technological manpower development, cultural preservation, and education for the future, in addition to descriptions of national education reforms. Many articles are accompanied by figures, tables, black and white photographs and short bibliographies; author information is provided. (LFL)

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UNESCO IN ASIA
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40 YEARS ON

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UNESCO IN ASIA
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PREFACE

Makaminan Makagiansar

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It was a happy coincidence for UNESCO when the United Nations General Assembly declared 1986 as the International Year of Peace, for 1986 was also the year of UNESCO's 40th anniversary and nothing could amount to a more appropriate tribute to UNESCO's mission and its accomplishments than to commemorate it in such a way.

For us in the UNESCO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific (ROEAP), the occasion has an added significance. This also is the year that marks the 25th anniversary of the establishment of this office. A fitting tribute to the significant contribution made by this regional office in serving the needs of the Member States lies in the fact that, on its 25th birthday, it is being made the Principal Regional Office for the Asia and Pacific region, with expanded responsibilities.

The paramount goal for which UNESCO was established was to create conditions for a stable and lasting peace through education, science and culture. If the United Nations was created to 'save succeeding generations from the scourge of war', UNESCO was created to contribute to that process by 'constructing defences of peace in the minds' of human beings. If the UN was created to bring the nations of the world to work together to remove the curse of poverty, disease and hunger, then UNESCO was created to lay the intellectual and moral foundation for it by promoting education for all, the wide diffusion of culture and the free exchange of ideas and knowledge. By declaring firmly that it is 'ignorance of each others ways and lives' and the 'denial of democratic principles of the dignity, equality and mutual respect' among human beings, that causes war, the UNESCO Constitution called upon all nations to create that climate of mutual respect and international co-operation that would further 'universal respect for justice, for the rule of law and for the human rights and fundamental freedoms which are affirmed for the peoples of the world, without distinction of race, sex, language or religion'.

If the relationship between peace and the work of UNESCO is not so obvious, it is so because we have got accustomed to thinking of peace only as an absence of war. Not of peace as a moral prerogative, or as a precondition for humanity's spiritual and material growth. But history is clear in its teaching. In the words of the UNESCO Constitution, 'a peace based exclusively upon political and economic arrangements of governments' is not a lasting peace. Only a peace that enjoys the spontaneous support of the people, a peace that is founded on the intellectual and moral solidarity of mankind, is a peace that lasts. And it is UNESCO's task, to bring that intellectual and moral solidarity about through the spread of education, science, culture and communication, through an increase in the shared knowledge of each other's culture and history, literacy and scientific achievements. All of this will hopefully break down the barriers of ignorance and prejudice and bring about tolerance, a sense of a shared destiny and mutual respect.

The relevance of UNESCO's work is perhaps more strikingly driven home if the argument is started from the opposite side. Imagine a modern world where UNESCO does not exist. Imagine also that every nation is convinced of the need to bring about a stable peace. Once in search of a stable peace, nations will realize that there exists a huge knowledge gap between them that requires bridging, there are stiff walls of prejudice between cultures that need to be demolished, there are fires of hatred that require to be extinguished.

All this can be achieved by 'promoting collaboration among nations through education, science and culture. For the nations in search of a stable peace the task at hand would have been clear. The peoples of the world would have to be convinced, as Einstein in his *Notes on Pacifism* said, that 'peace cannot be kept by force. It can only be achieved by understanding'.

It was on the basis of the above realization that UNESCO was created. It is the same realization today that compels us to preserve and strengthen UNESCO to serve the cause of intellectual co-operation, mutual respect and peace.

For forty years UNESCO has worked relentlessly for a better future for mankind. Yet the world of today is more afflicted by poverty, hunger and disease than ever before. There is as much, if not more unreasonableness, prejudice and ignorance than the world has ever seen.

We are far from reaching the goals that we have set for ourselves. Illiteracy has not yet been eradicated and education is yet to be made available to all. Science is not yet exclusively in the service of life. Culture is yet to be a unity in diversity where every nation can find a reflection of its heritage.

Yet the achievements, have been, in some ways, rather startling. Education has been given its rightful place as a fundamental human right and is pursued with vigour and zeal wherever dire poverty does not prevent it.

There are more scientists working together and collaborating with their counterparts today than ever before in solving such common problems as those of the environment; ecology; desertification; pollution; erosion; natural disasters.

There is now a far deeper awareness of the cultural heritage of the different people of the world and a stronger movement for its restoration, preservation and dissemination.

The support for greater communication between peoples and exchange of information between all nations and regions of the world is now unanimous. The need for greater contemporary knowledge of each other is universally felt and there is a desire on the part of all, to increase communication infrastructure and professional training so as to facilitate free flow and greater exchange of information among all.

In all this UNESCO can claim to have played a critical role.

As regards, the Asia and the Pacific region, UNESCO's most significant contribution has been, and continues to be, in the field of education. Perhaps in no other sector has UNESCO's contribution in the development of this region been so vital. Australia, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Japan, New Zealand, the Republic of Korea and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics have already acquired 100 per cent literacy. There are ten countries in the region that have already achieved 80 per cent, or higher, literacy rates and expect to reach 100 per cent by 1990. There are four countries where the rate is between 50-80 per cent. By 1995, they expect to acquire 100 per cent literacy rate. There are only seven countries with a literacy rate below 50 per cent. Most of these countries expect to remove the ignominy of illiteracy by the year 2000. The aggregate literacy rate for the region in 1985 was 63.7 per cent compared with a rate of 53.6 per cent for 1975.

Unesco in Asia and the Pacific

In all this, UNESCO's contribution is obvious.

Though it all started from the early days of UNESCO, a turning point in the advancement of education in this region occurred in 1960. In that year, under UNESCO sponsorship, the famous 'Karachi Plan' was adopted making Universal Primary Education (UPE) a national goal for every country in the region. It declared, in the most unambiguous terms, 'that every country should provide a system of universal, compulsory and free primary education for seven years or more within a period of not more than 20 years' (1960-1980).

The timetable proved a bit too ambitious for some countries, especially for countries such as India, Bangladesh, China, and Pakistan, who together account for more than 75 per cent of this region's illiterate population. The unexpectedly high rate of population growth proved much too heavy for these countries to implement the Karachi Plan within the specified time period.

To implement the Karachi Plan it was realized that governmental decisions at the highest policy levels were needed. Consequently, UNESCO instituted a system of governmental meetings with Ministers of education and economic planning to ensure each national government's commitment to the plan. The meetings, starting from the first in Tokyo in 1962, have been held every few years - Bangkok 1965, Singapore 1972, Colombo 1978 and Bangkok 1985. These periodic meetings not only helped to identify the desired practical measures to implement the Karachi Plan but also became the mechanism through which regional priorities and areas of international and regional co-operation could be identified. The composition of the conference of both the ministries of education and economic planning gave it a multidisciplinary perspective and ensured education being considered as an integral part of a country's development planning process. Each of these regional conferences gave birth to new ideas and new regional programmes to solve the problem of education faced by the countries of the region.

The Tokyo meeting, while endorsing the Karachi Plan, expanded its scope to include not only primary, but also secondary, higher and adult education.

The Bangkok Conference of 1965 produced the so-called 'Asian Model of Educational Development' with the following pur-

poses, first to visualize in quantitative terms the prospect of educational development in Asia up to 1980, second to illustrate the intricate multi-disciplinarity in educational development and third, to draw attention to the important implication of educational development to the overall national progress.

The Singapore Conference of 1972 is perhaps more notable for giving birth to new mechanisms of regional co-operation, especially the Asia and Pacific Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID). This is a co-operative network of educational institutions and bodies, called Associated Centres - 168 according to the last count - devoted to educational innovation for development. Between the period 1978-1985 APEID has carried out 600 activities at regional and national levels involving 11,500 educators in 24 countries of the region.

The Ministers Conference in Colombo, Sri Lanka, is notable for its emphasis on girls' and women's education and higher education. It also recommended the creation of a regional Standing Advisory Committee to meet once every two years to expedite the implementation of the decisions of the ministerial conferences.

The most recent in this series of conferences was held again in Bangkok, in 1985, and can be said to be most noteworthy for approving the Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All by the year 2000 (APPEAL). This programme has three vital components. They are, namely, the eradication of illiteracy, the universalization of primary education and life-long continuing education. The special feature of this programme will be to attract as much extra-budgetary funding for educational activities as possible. The UN funding agencies, Member States and private foundations and philanthropic bodies will be approached to join together with UNESCO in eliminating illiteracy from Asia. APPEAL can be termed as the final phase of implementing the Karachi Plan.

The series of ministerial conferences has been dealt with at some length for they not only show how and when vital decisions were taken but also how the pattern of educational development evolved over time.

The series of ministerial conferences is but only one - albeit the most important one - of the many ways that UNESCO has assisted the development of education in this region. The advisory

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services, the expert missions, the consultants, the supply of equipment, the organizing of training workshops, carrying out research and assisting countries in the formulation of their educational policy and planning are some of the other ways that UNESCO renders its service to the Member States of this region.

In this regard some of UNESCO's regional education programmes need to be mentioned, other than those dealing with Universal Primary Education and Literacy, which have already been dealt with in some detail.

Mention needs to be made of UNESCO's science and technology education programme. This programme is aimed at enhancing the national capacities and broadening the base of, and access to, science and technology education. Activities here concentrated on the innovation of the curricula and development of instructional material. Following a multi-country study covering Australia, China, Japan, Pakistan, Sri Lanka and the USSR, UNESCO launched a project called 'Technology in General Education' in 1981-1983 that helped the development of teaching material inter-linking science, technology and education. To show the inter-relationship between science education and real life needs, UNESCO assisted in the development and inclusion of nutrition education as a part of overall science education.

In the area of population control, UNESCO's distinct contribution was the introduction and popularization of the subject of population education. At the moment 14 countries in Asia and ten in the Pacific have regular population education programmes as an integral part of their overall population control strategy.

Promotion of vocational education and the relationship between education and the world of work forms another important component of UNESCO's work in the Asia-Pacific region.

UNESCO's work in higher education received a significant boost in 1982 when the Regional Co-operation Programme in Higher Education for Development became operational. Sixty institutions and offices of higher education from 15 countries have joined this co-operation programme whose work is carried out by three consortia in the following areas: (i) innovations in higher education; (ii) policy, planning and management in higher education; and (iii) special research and studies in higher education. The consortium on innova-

tion is currently working in four projects, namely distance education, curriculum innovation, staff development and participation of higher education institutions in development. Similar activities are being carried out by two other consortia in co-operation with, and with regard to the needs of, the participating countries.

Educational planning and administration forms another area of UNESCO's work in this region. Mainly focused on research and training, UNESCO has helped train about 600 educational planners and administration between the period of 1978-1984.

In the area of educational facilities development UNESCO's input consists of (i) training; (ii) advisory service; (iii) studies; and (iv) information dissemination. Here UNESCO assists Member States to devise cheap and durable ways of erecting school buildings, publishing books and producing teaching materials.

UNESCO's other activities in the region, in the fields of science, culture, social science, communication and book promotion have not been elaborated on because this bulletin is especially designated to concentrate on the issue of education.

This 40th anniversary commemorative issue attempts to highlight some of the achievements of the arduous struggle that UNESCO and its Member States have carried on to provide education to all its citizens. At the same time the articles in this volume attempt to identify some of the unfinished tasks at hand. Of that, to make an obvious understatement, there are plenty.

Asia still leads the world, with 666 million illiterates living within its boundaries. A tragic aspect of the illiteracy picture is the wastage of the potential of children and youth. Today in our region there are more than 350 million children and youth between the 6-23 years who are out of the reach of schools. This accounts for 60 per cent of the population in this range.

Another aspect is the situation of girls and women. Sixty per cent of adult illiterates are girls and women. Yet, there are some heart-warming trends. Between 1970-1982 girls enrolment rose from 110 million to 153 million at the primary level. Enrolment in the second level for the same period rose from 37 million to 59 million.

Backwardness in education is invariably linked to deprivation and socio-economic underdevelopment. *The poverty map and the*

illiteracy map of the world appear strikingly similar. Typically countries that are illiterate are also the countries where infant mortality rates are high, malnutrition is widespread, diseases are endemic and epidemics are frequent. It is also in these countries that large sections of the population do not having safe drinking water and more than half of their population live below the poverty line. Sometimes countries argue that they have such urgent and dire economic problems that they cannot enjoy the luxury of investing a significant proportion of their meagre GNP in education. The argument, more appropriately, should be the other way around. Given their economic crisis can they enjoy the luxury of **not investing** in education? For post Second World War history clearly shows, and statistics bear it out, that those developing countries which made significant long term investment in education were the ones which broke out of the poverty cycle and achieved sustained and substantial economic growth. However scarce the resources should become, investment in education must be continued. Without educated children, literate farmers and workers and mothers who can read and write, no nation can advance. In today's world the co-relation is unmistakable – **to be able to achieve economic growth as a nation, one must be educated as a nation.**

In commemorating its 40th anniversary and the International Year of Peace an appeal is made to all to rededicate ourselves to the ideals of UNESCO so that we can reinvigorate our work to gain that 'precious pearl' – namely world peace. For without peace the human race faces the threat of total extinction. The hatred that fuels violence, the prejudice that leads to oppression, the ignorance that leads to discrimination, the idea of superiority that leads to chauvinism, **must all give way to a search for knowledge and wisdom**, that will lead to co-operation between nations, mutual respect among the various peoples and a sense of shared cultural heritage that will be magnificent in its diversity and inspiring in its unity.

It is towards that search for knowledge and wisdom that UNESCO, on its 40th anniversary, pledges, once again, its total commitment.

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SECTION ONE

**SOME CURRENT UNESCO ACTIVITIES
IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC**

UNESCO OFFICES IN BANGKOK

Four UNESCO offices are based in Bangkok. They are the Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific (ROEAP; the offices of the Regional Adviser for Culture in Asia and the Pacific (RACAP); and the Regional Adviser for the Social and Human Sciences in Asia and the Pacific (RUSHSAP); and the Office of Public Information in Asia and the Pacific (RIO).



UNESCO ROEAP itself, comprises the following activities: Asia and the Pacific Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID), which is co-ordinated by staff of the Asian Centre of Educational Innovation for Development (ACEID); Educational Advisory Services (EAS) in Higher Education, Literacy and Continuing Education, Technical Education and UNESCO/UNICEF Co-operation; Educational Facilities Development Service (EFDS); Educational Planning and Management Service (EPMS), including statistical services; and Population Education Services (PES). The

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Documentation and Information Service, Publications Unit and Administration Office provide their services to all five UNESCO offices.

As more functions and activities are decentralized to Bangkok by UNESCO headquarters, the somewhat artificial boundaries between one programme area and another are tending to become blurred. This is particularly so in ROEAP, where, for example, the interactions that occur between literacy programmes, educational planning and management, population education and the innovative programmes of APEID, frequently overlap. This requires the contribution and co-operation of several programme specialists for certain combined activities. The details of this trend become clearer on the following pages.

UNESCO – HELPING US TO DISCOVER OURSELVES (RIO)

Public information for many, is public relations; that for many, is advertising; which in its turn may mean for many to be pure image making. And as images go, they may be quite removed from the reality. But public information may also mean factual accounting of what is going on. Something akin to public education, consciousness building, making the public aware of certain vital issues that affect them and letting them know what is happening in these areas. It is in the latter sense that UNESCO views its own public information tasks.

To understand the objectives and functions of UNESCO's public information service, it is necessary to understand the objectives and functions of UNESCO itself. This statement may not be very original, but is nonetheless crucial for the understanding of UNESCO's information activities.

Very simply, for UNESCO, public information is to tell the world what UNESCO does. But what does UNESCO do?

It helps countries to build schools, train teachers, produce educational materials, print textbooks, develop curricula, formulate educational policies, plan short and long term educational strategies. It restores and preserves cultural monuments, rare manuscripts, various forms of music and plays, and translates works of exceptional literary quality from national to international languages. It brings together scientists of the world to look into such common problems facing mankind as environment, vegetation, water and marine life, and discover common solutions. It brings together social scientists to delve into fundamental issues of nation building and advancing further the gains of human rights and fundamental freedoms. It assists in building communication infrastructures, provides professional training and works for a greater international flow of information between all countries and regions.

The above list is large, varied and quite impressive. But frankly, it is quite **besides the point**. While it is true that UNESCO spends

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all its resources and energies to do whatever is mentioned earlier, it does so, not as an end in itself, but only as a means to achieve far greater and fundamental ends as specified by its Constitution. And it is these ends that need to be understood well if the work of UNESCO's public information services is to be appreciated in any real sense.

UNESCO's fundamental aim is to break down the barriers of prejudice and ignorance and improve the knowledge of each other's cultures and ways of life so that we begin to realize that humanity, however divided geographically, racially, culturally, linguistically and otherwise, are firmly united in the basic desire for peace, friendship, development and quality of life. UNESCO's Constitution makes a radical departure from the conventional approach to international relations when it firmly proclaims to the world that a simple agreement between governments or understanding between States cannot guarantee stable and long-term peace. If peace is to be durable, a people to people relationship has to be developed going far beyond the limited coterie of a government and its functionaries. This people-to-people relationship will bring about a world-wide intellectual and moral solidarity which will act, not only as a guarantor of peace but also as a bulwark against all tendencies that lead to decisiveness and confrontation.

Perhaps an apt description of UNESCO's work, which may help to clarify the functions of the information service, was given by the famous American political scientist, Rober MacIver. During the deliberations on the establishment of the organization, he said the task of UNESCO was to lay the scientific foundations for the interpretation of people to people. The challenge therefore, is to interpret one people to another so that through greater knowledge there is greater international understanding and co-operation.

Hence we need education to open up and enrich our minds, science to understand our physical surroundings, social science to delve in the process of societal change, culture to understand what we are and communication to share it all. All this we need — meaning UNESCO, we need — to interpret one people to another.

It is the task of UNESCO's public information services to bring about a deeper appreciation and wider public knowledge of this complex and interwoven process of **discovery of ourselves by ourselves** which is what UNESCO fundamentally aims to achieve.

As can be expected under the circumstances, UNESCO takes a much wider view of public information work than is generally attributed to it. For this purpose UNESCO has created an integrated secretariat body entitled the Sector of External Relations. This sector views public information in the widest sense of the term and includes the following tasks:

- a) Public information through the mass media;
- b) Public information through professional bodies; and
- c) Public information through the National Commissions and UNESCO Associations and Clubs.

In its relations with the mass media, UNESCO's information service distributes various printed materials, sends out press releases, feature articles, organizes radio and television programmes and coverage of sports events. Occasional tours by journalists to special projects are also organized. However, while great emphasis is laid upon the coverage of the event itself, a serious attempt is simultaneously made to inculcate a genuine interest of the media professionals in the substantive issues themselves.

For example, while inviting media coverage of a project, say on education or culture, attention is drawn not only on the project itself or to UNESCO's role in it, but also to the more fundamental issue of the role of education and culture in a nation's life. The idea is that these issues should and must be covered as a vital component of a nation's growth and not merely because UNESCO has done some useful work and brought it to the media's attention.

The international and regional professional organizations are the life blood of the organization. After the Member States, it is through them that UNESCO implements its programmes and informs the intellectual community of its activities. It is with them as the pivot, that UNESCO tries to build, the 'intellectual and moral solidarity of mankind' that strengthens the bond of co-operation among nations.

The National Commissions and UNESCO Clubs and Associations are the channels of direct link with the intellectual community and the general public in the Member States. The National Commission brings together a large group of country-level professional bodies and prominent individuals who are then linked with UNESCO's programmes in the country and abroad. The UNESCO

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Clubs and Associations bring together members of the general public who believe in the ideals of UNESCO and would like to participate in the creation of, what Archibald MacLeish, one of the co-authors of the UNESCO Constitution, called 'a climate of opinion which will make war impossible'.

True to its original purpose UNESCO has, over the last 40 years, become a meeting ground for divergent cultures, philosophies, ideologies, religious beliefs and social systems. It is a place where humanity, at its sublime best, meets, exchanges experiences and resolves conflicts through a process of collective action arrived at by consensus.

UNESCO today has become synonymous with a process of dialogue which has resulted in nations, holding opposing ideological views, working together in promoting mutual co-operation in the educational, scientific and cultural fields. As the threat of a nuclear holocaust looms ever closer, this 'centre' of dialogue and mutual 'discovery' must be preserved and made more secure.

For this purpose it is most essential that a greater number of people come to know how UNESCO, by bringing this diverse humanity together, is pushing back the dark clouds of ignorance and prejudice. How, by bringing scientists, artists and intellectuals together from all ideological and cultural groups, UNESCO is bringing about genuine mutual co-operation. It is the responsibility of the public information service to bring this to the public's knowledge.

In the address to the 12th Conference of International Non-Governmental Organizations, held in May 1986, in Paris, the Director-General of UNESCO, Mr. Amadou Mahtar M'Bow aptly described the impact of the organization's work. He said UNESCO's work during the last 40 years shows 'that co-operation must take precedence over confrontation, just as right must prevail over might. When everyone is pitted against each other. . . not only selfishness and inequality triumphs but, in the final analysis, knowledge is sacrificed to the principles and objectives of war'.

This is what UNESCO, through all its programmes and activities including those concerning public information, is working ceaselessly to prevent.

EDUCATION: ROEAP

Literacy: An old challenge for a new decade

The Asia and Pacific region is the home of more than 650 million illiterates, the highest concentration of illiterates anywhere in the world. Without a literate population, progress in development may always remain a distant dream. The third United Nations' Development Decade has declared the provision of education to all and the eradication of illiteracy as its main purpose. The Member States of UNESCO's Asia and Pacific region are becoming increasingly aware of the detriments of illiteracy. All have set a target date for the complete eradication of illiteracy by 2000.

The magnitude of the problem, coupled with the seriousness of the time constraints gives an unusually rare sense of urgency to the task. Realizing that illiteracy eradication is one of the greatest challenges of our time, UNESCO has given the utmost priority to this struggle.

Planning and management of literacy programmes. Successful illiteracy eradication lies in effective planning and management. UNESCO ROEAP has been a close partner in the planning activities for literacy/adult education of several member countries. Concurrently, ROEAP has been involved in the planning and management of literacy/adult education through different modalities. Periodical consultations among the leaders, policy makers, planners and administrators are held with ROEAP support in order to help Member States develop their literacy plans and sustain their interest in and commitment to the implementation of literacy programmes.

Besides the joint consultation, ROEAP promotes the exchange of experience among the Member States through study visits, and attachment programmes of experts and regional or sub-regional training in the spirit of technical co-operation among developing countries (TCDC) of the United Nations System.

Aware of the time constraint, ROEAP has undertaken to assist the Member States at the regional and national levels, simultaneously.

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At the regional level, training workshops have been organized to train leading policy makers and key literacy personnel in planning and management and other areas related to its development.

Training of literacy personnel. At the request of the member countries, ROEAP holds annual regional training workshops for key policy making literacy personnel. In 1985, for example, a Regional Training Workshop in Literacy was held in New Delhi, India. Participants were exposed to the model(s) of training designs for literacy training at the national or sub-national level. They had the opportunity to visit field projects and tried their hand at designing training programmes for three types of literacy personnel.

Although these regional training workshops could each accommodate only a relatively small number of participants, their multiplier effect has been strongly felt when the participants returned to conduct follow-up activities in their own countries. These activities take a variety of forms. As far as possible, ROEAP responds to the Member States' request to be involved in the follow up activities through either financial and/or technical support. It is hoped that the impact of these activities will filter through to the grass roots level. Between 1980 and the present time, more than 6,100 national personnel have been trained in one or more aspects of literacy planning and programme implementation by programmes that are supported by UNESCO. The Regional Office, conscious of the scarcity of training materials for literacy personnel, develops prototype training materials based on the collective experience of the participants, guided by the experts in literacy.

These training materials are used as background materials for training, for information on the experiences of the participating Member States and as exemplary materials. Today, the materials continue to be requested by Member States and non-governmental agencies and scholars interested in literacy and adult education.

Literacy materials development. Though training is ROEAP's major activity in its literacy programme, personnel development or institution building is only one aspect of planning and management of such a programme. In order to guarantee the permanent impact of literacy among neo-literates, ROEAP is actively involved in assisting the Member States in their post literacy activities, including the provision of financial and/or technical assistance in the organization

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of regional training workshops jointly with the Asian Cultural Centre for UNESCO (ACCU). At these workshops, regional experiences are consolidated to form the baseline data in formulating a manual for neo-literate materials development and in producing a set of Asian Joint Production (AJP) materials. The AJP materials are prototype materials intended to be adapted for use in each respective country. For example, in 1985, ROEAP financially supported the printing of AJP materials in Indonesia as well as provided an advisory service to Malaysia for its national training workshop in post-literacy materials development. In the case of Malaysia such a series of workshops at the national, sub-national, and district levels have been systematically planned. This year, two sub-national workshops are benefiting from UNESCO's technical support for post-literacy materials development in the heartland of Malaysia's illiterates — Sabah and Sarawak in East Malaysia. Already, the country has been able to identify a group of key personnel who are well on their way to becoming self-reliant in their own training in post-literacy development, and ROEAP will withdraw its involvement in post-literacy development as Malaysia demonstrates its self-reliance in the area of post-literacy materials development. It is noteworthy that ROEAP emphasizes the imparting of understanding of the process as well as the quality of the products. To illustrate, the recent workshops in Sarawak produced 21 functional literacy materials while simultaneously raising the participants' competence and confidence in materials development.

UNESCO involvement varies in form according to the specific conditions and needs of the countries. For example, in 1985, ROEAP airfreighted printing paper for literacy books being printed in Afghanistan.

Another activity undertaken by ROEAP in creating a literate environment for neo-literates is by promoting village reading centres, reading rooms, and rural libraries, among others. Realizing the Member States appreciation of the indispensable value of reading centres in sustaining neo-literates' literacy skills, ROEAP also encourages the intercountry exchanges of experiences in this area by facilitating study visits of key literacy personnel. Thailand, for example, has offered its well-established network of village reading centres for the visits of literacy personnel from India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Pakistan and Sri Lanka.

Literacy in development for women. Some 60 per cent of the illiterate population are women. To tackle the illiteracy problem effectively is to focus efforts on the female illiterates. Literate women are more likely to succeed in individual development than illiterate ones. They are, therefore, potential contributors to their country's social as well as economic development. Conscious of the member countries recognition of the significant role women can play in development, ROEAP, organized a Regional Workshop for those in charge of Women's Education in Rural Development in 1982. The workshop put particular emphases on the following issues:

1. Schooling and non-formal education for girls and women;
2. Educational components in family welfare;
3. Preparing women for income generating activities; and
4. Women's participation in development.

Since this workshop, numerous national follow-up activities have been organized with ROEAP support to meet development needs of women. For example, UNESCO has co-operated with the Government of India in conducting an Integrated Pilot Project on Literacy Instruction and Civic Awareness in Chinhat and Bakshi-ka-Talab, Lucknow District and Uttar Pradesh where the literacy rate among women is as low as 11 per cent. The outcomes of this project will shed light on the implementation of similar projects for women within India and in other parts of the region. In the same manner, ROEAP is planning a similar pilot project emphasizing vocational skills and continuing education to be conducted in another country in the region. In 1985-1986 UNESCO supported a rural development project for women in Antique and Bicol in the Philippines. Known as 'Project Learn', the project has the following as its tenets:

1. Making literacy functional in everyday activities;
2. Increasing each family's earning capacity;
3. Promoting planned parenthood resulting in a happy family life;
4. Promoting the protection of environment; and
5. Providing the young people with proper nourishment, both physically and intellectually.

Approximately 550 rural women in Camarines Sur and Antique were trained to conduct a more productive and fulfilling life. These women (17-35 years) come from low-income families. They

were trained by women educators who had attended a previous workshop specializing in the various fields of Project LEARN.

In addition to direct involvement in literacy activities for women, UNESCO also offers technical co-operation with other United Nations agencies, notably UNICEF. This year, alone, ROEAP has given technical inputs to literacy programmes for women in Kampuchea and in Burma through UNICEF.

The Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL). Clearly the struggle against mass illiteracy has been started in this century. Some programmes have met with spectacular success while others need a newer, fresher approach to give the task the necessary momentum. One fact has emerged from this experience. Illiteracy eradication and provision of primary education are necessarily complementary — two sides of the same coin. One cannot succeed without the other. Literate mothers are more likely and capable of supporting their children's education. Similarly, primary school children would not grow up to add to the rank of illiterates.

Work in the field of literacy and adult education, population education, environment education, educational planning and management, and educational facilities, carried out by UNESCO, through ROEAP, has contributed in various ways towards the solution of the problems faced.

A major thrust to these efforts was provided with the inauguration, in 1975, of the Asia and the Pacific Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID). One of the high priority areas of APEID (1982-1986) related to the universalization of primary education. It focused on the innovations and reforms needed to provide access to education at the first level by both formal and non-formal means. Similarly, since 1977 UNESCO ROEAP has been undertaking activities in the field of literacy. These include (i) studies on the problem of illiteracy, and how it may be eradicated; (ii) assistance to Member States in preparing national literacy plans and programmes; (iii) training national personnel in coping with illiteracy problems; and (iv) publishing and supplying case studies and training materials.

In response to the Member States' request, first at the Fifth Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning in Asia and the Pacific, then at the 23rd Session

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of General Conference and again at the Programme Development Meeting in May 1986, UNESCO launched a major programme entitled the Asian-Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL).

The programme acknowledges the rich cultural heritage of the region. The existence of indigenous languages and the long literary tradition of many of them is another unique feature. There is also a renewed assertion of cultural identity by the nation-states.

APPEAL is based on the premise that education is a fundamental human right, and that it is a critical means for development. Education is regarded as a subsystem of the wider society, having interfaces with the economic, political, social and cultural domains; so actions should be planned taking into account all these domains.

Objectives of APPEAL. The objectives of APPEAL are based on Resolution 10 of MINEDAP V, which would *inter alia* promote and strengthen mutual co-operation among Member States in the region to fulfil their resolve to:

1. Continue and intensify their efforts to eradicate illiteracy and to achieve universal primary education before the year 2000.
2. Create appropriate infrastructures for integrated and effective planning, management, research and development for literacy, primary education and continuing education, with special emphasis on women and disadvantaged population groups.
3. Mobilize human, material and financial resources, as well as encourage community participation and utilization of local resources.
4. Give special attention to raising the level of learning achievements of pupils through curriculum renewal, training of personnel, and research, etc.
5. Promote and strengthen continuing education, especially for out-of-school children and youth.

The principles guiding the actions of APPEAL are based on the:

1. Mobilization of existing national and regional structures, within the education sector and outside it;

2. Linking of quantitative expansion and quality improvement and renewal;
3. Special attention given to population groups such as women, primary school children in poor environments, out-of-school and early drop-out youth, working children, people living in remote areas.

APPEAL, therefore, encompasses three components, two of which have been earlier mentioned — illiteracy eradication and universalization of primary education. The third component is continuing education, including post-literacy activities and the inculcation of reading/learning habits. This is the first time a major regional programme of UNESCO has ventured to include this component. The strength of APPEAL may well lie in continuing education, as this is the component that will link and strengthen the first two components simultaneously.

Educational Planning, Management and Statistics

The past three decades have witnessed the emergence and gradual development of educational planning as a new field of specialization and a modality to make educational investments and activities more rational and effective. Beginning with formulation of education plans, Member States initiated formal training in educational planning. Most of the countries now have university level degree programmes in educational administration and provisions for in-service training in educational planning and administration.

These efforts have so far been mostly focused on macro-planning or national planning. Attention to micro-level planning and decentralization of planning in education is a very recent phenomenon. As the result of such re-orientation many development and training programmes are underway to bring the benefit of educational planning to the more micro- and operational levels in educational systems.

Another fast developing area is modernization and computerization of educational management information systems. There seems to be a particular interest and efforts in introducing mini-computers in information system management. These two activities, namely, micro-level planning and computerized information systems are the priority areas in educational administration in Asia and the Pacific.

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The greatest problem facing the countries is the spiralling cost of education. The population explosion, expansion and democratization of education, and technological developments, have created demands for education far in excess of resources available to governments. This problem has given rise to a new movement referred to as 'privatization' or 'reprivatization' of education. There is no doubt the whole financial system of education needs to be based on a new resource mobilization and community participation radically different from the more classical pattern of direct financing and management by government.

In the field of management of education, both efficiency and effectiveness are moving into the spotlight. The traditional methods of inspection and supervision are becoming obsolete. Instead, self-evaluation and participative management approaches are being introduced. This is the process of transferring the responsibility of management to the lowest level and making educational institutions and personnel accountable to more local and community level authorities. This movement is developing parallel to decentralization in planning.

An innovative approach in management of schools and school systems is inter-institutional networking which makes a group of schools together as the unitary system rather than a single school. This development while still in its infancy has great potential in revolutionizing the management system of education. A number of experimental approaches are being tried such as school clusters, school complexes, school zones and the like. This is pooling all resources available in a small geographical area into one unitary system instead of a number of independent schools and institutions. At the same time more and more responsibilities and authorities are delegated to these fledgling 'multi-campus school systems'.

The same general tendency of decentralization and localization of education is shifting the school more and more into a community centre. School, community and homes are becoming more integrated. Schools are becoming community learning centres. As a result the integrated multi-sectoral approach to educational management is becoming a reality. This movement has certain consequences. One such problem is the non-educational functions demanded of educational personnel who are called upon to render a variety of services to the community. Such a demand creates management

problems in terms of line of supervision and accountability. Schools and school personnel are becoming accountable to more than one public agency.

The change in the public-service delivery system and the pivotal role of the school and educational personnel in such a change require a management pattern drastically different from single service delivery management. Lifelong education, distance learning, open systems, and modern technologies have increasingly added to the number and demands of clientele for educational institutions. Schools, being required to meet the educational demands of people of all ages and all levels, are turning into general learning centres. Educational personnel are also becoming community development agents. More educated parents are absorbing some of the teaching and tutoring functions of the schools and share the teaching work. There is a flow of transfer of educational activity from school to home and a transfer of other services into the schools. These tendencies and movements have far-reaching impacts on the planning and management of education.

The challenge of educational management during the remainder of the twentieth century is devising new and flexible systems and procedures, training educational administrators for managing the fast changes happening in education, and designing a new system or systems which could benefit from the new approaches, advances and changes in education at the same time as they facilitate and support such changes.

The socio-political awakening, increasing level of education and maturity of the masses in the region now add to the public demands on educational planners and exert increasing pressures on the already overburdened education officers. A more educated public diminishes the age-old status of the teacher in the community. Such a reduction in social prestige and influence makes the job less attractive and calls for incentives other than social status. The signs of heavy brain-drain in the education system is now quite evident. It is no more a priority choice to become a teacher. Rebuilding the non-material incentive systems and strengthening and increasing material incentives to re-attract the best talents to this vital social institution, education, is yet another challenge to educational planners and managers.

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Last but by no means least are the planning and management demands for further development and maintenance of quality in both physical as well as pedagogical assets in the system.

All these elements, pressures, movements and tendencies have forced an increasing number of Member States to look for new policies and new organizational systems in education. A number of Member States in Asia have undertaken such revisions, innovations and modernization measures in their education system.

Making educational buildings safe

Asia is a disaster prone region — earthquakes, cyclones (or typhoons), land slides, floods, collapsing buildings are in the headlines nearly every week. Educational buildings play a peculiar role in this scenario of disaster: a well designed school which is strongly constructed may become a refuge and save lives, while a poor building may be a death-trap sprung by a high wind, an earth tremor or heavy rain.

UNESCO's current programme places stress on the need for educational buildings to be safe places for children. This is being developed by ROEAP through studies, training, field experience and documentation. Two training courses have recently been completed where participants from ten countries have been instructed on how to design and build cyclone-proof schools, and perhaps more important, how to upgrade existing buildings so that they too can withstand such forces.

Closely related to the problem of cyclones is that of earthquakes. UNESCO has long made use of research data on earthquake resistant design in the advisory services which have been given to the earthquake affected countries of the region and has supported a research project in this area. This collected information — covering both research and experience — is now being compiled into a book. This publication should help government officials to introduce these earthquake resistance measures into the designs of their schools, or, as with cyclone-proofing, the reinforcement of existing structures.

A related study — still in its early stages — deals with the general issue of safety in educational buildings and furniture. This will provide designers with a detailed check-list of points to be kept in mind. The building codes vary throughout the region — both in the

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way they are conceived and in the way they are enforced. This study aims, therefore, to provoke designers to 'think safety' when designing buildings or furniture and to recognize the importance of respecting codes where they do exist or, if there are no local codes, of identifying and applying relevant elements from other codes.

Educational buildings which reflect developments in education.

As country after country achieves or approaches the goal of providing universal primary education it can be assumed their school building needs are being met. This has proven to be only partly true. Countries which have managed to place a primary school within reach of virtually every village, are now embarking on new ventures of improving educational quality. This has major consequences for educational building design: additional classrooms may need to be added in order to reduce overcrowding; libraries need to be introduced; to promote individualized learning, playground equipment built to promote balanced physical development. This situation has opened a new subject area — that of school improvement. UNESCO, Bangkok has worked actively in co-operation with UNICEF and the World Bank on projects in Bangladesh, Burma and Nepal to improve thousands of schools. A study on how primary schools in Thailand could be improved has also been carried out.

As various educational reforms are adopted, renewed attention is being placed on other educational levels. Most notably, the early childhood or pre-school level, has come into increasing importance in the past few years. One study has been completed and widely distributed which gives guidance on the design of pre-school centres. A companion study is underway on the design of playground equipment which will contribute to physical development and cognitive learning of very young children. A field study in Thailand which was a joint effort between national officials, UNICEF and UNESCO, has contributed very substantially to the knowledge in this area.

Other educational levels, for which further research is required, are those of technical and teacher education. Experience gained from the execution of large construction projects in Viet Nam, Nepal and Bhutan have all contributed experience to the design of teacher training institutes and this data is now available in published form. Evaluation of a technical education project in Indonesia, the design and construction of a polytechnic for women in Bangladesh, and preparation of a master plan for a national polytechnique institute

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in Lao People's Democratic Republic are all contributing toward the accumulation of materials which can eventually be published.

Prototype development. An important new dimension to UNESCO's work in educational building is the growing use of prototypes. Thanks to assistance from AGFUND, it is now possible for UNESCO to give assistance to Member States for the construction of prototype buildings or furniture lines. The funds provided to the Member States are intended to work as 'seed money' as once the prototypes have been constructed and evaluated and new designs prepared, governments are expected to follow-up with their own massive investments. This approach is, so far, showing substantial promise. Not only does it provoke innovative thinking but as the follow-up of a successful prototype activity is the training of national personnel it is contributing to the professional development of national staff.

Higher education

In recent years, ROEAP has been involved in many substantive activities in higher education in Asia and the Pacific. A network of 70 universities, research institutions, grants commissions and other higher education institutions have been set up in 17 countries within the framework of the UNESCO-sponsored Regional Co-operative Programme in Higher Education for Development in Asia and the Pacific. The programme activities which are, in the main, developed and carried out by the participating institutions, embrace innovations in higher education; policy planning and management of higher education; and special research studies in higher education. The participating institutions have formed into three consortia corresponding to the above programme areas. The programme draws its funding support from the UNESCO Regular Budget and UNDP/UNESCO Project RAS/81/013.

The broad objectives of the regional programme are to: (1) promote inter-country exchange of experiences and expertise in innovative developments in higher education; (2) contribute to the development and application of knowledge and techniques in the field of policy, planning and management; (3) contribute through special research studies to knowledge and understanding of the problems and emerging roles of higher education; and (4) facilitate inter-country exchange of information and documentation.

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The emphasis of the programme has been on the training of higher education personnel, development of training materials, carrying out research studies, and strengthening documentation and information service.

Distance education and Open University structure. In the field of distance education, particularly in the context of the 'open university', three major regional and six national training activities have been organized during the last four years. More than 200 key persons from countries in this region have participated in one or more of these activities. The workshops have also produced some significant training materials.

The first such activity was the inter-country study visit-cum-mobile workshop which took place in Thailand and Australia in 1983. A regional training workshop on the development of distance education instructional materials development was organized at Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University, Thailand in 1985. This was followed by another regional training workshop on the development, use and evaluation of distance education broadcast materials held at Allama Iqbal Open University, Pakistan in 1986. Six national training workshops on distance education materials development have also been organized in Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Papua New Guinea, Viet Nam and Sri Lanka. Six issues of the distance education newsletter 'Never too far' have been published and two inventories on distance education institutions at the higher education level in Asia and the Pacific have been produced.

Planning and management. In the last two years, two regional symposia and a number of national training workshops related to the planning and management of higher education have taken place. The first regional symposium attended by senior administrators was held in India in 1985. The theme was equity, excellence and efficiency in higher education. The second symposium held in Bangladesh in 1986 addressed itself to the issues related to long-term planning of higher education. A series of national training workshops on examination reform, management of resources, curriculum renewal in the context of community needs, and planning of universities are also taking place.

Academic staff development. A regional workshop for key persons in academic staff development was organized in Australia

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in 1984. The workshop, attended by senior university professors, produced a report suggesting guidelines and framework for strengthening programmes for professional development of academic staff in the universities. A paper documenting pedagogical training at the post-secondary level in the Asia-Pacific region has been prepared. This will be followed by a more detailed inventory which is now being compiled.

Research studies. A series of important inter-country research studies on critical issues related to higher education have been undertaken. The first of these is the study on 'participation of higher education institutions in national development' undertaken in Bangladesh, India, Philippines and Thailand within a broad research framework. Another inter-country study on 'equity, quality and cost in higher education' is under way in Australia, India and the Republic of Korea. The third inter-country study on 'participation of women in higher education' has been initiated in China, Nepal, Pakistan and Philippines. A fourth study on the contribution of higher agricultural education to rural development in Asia and the Pacific has also been completed. Lastly, national case studies on higher education planning in 11 countries are nearing completion. All the studies are planned for publication in 1987.

Documentation and information. In addition to others that have been mentioned earlier, a comprehensive bibliography on higher education in Bangladesh, China, India and the Republic of Korea has been computerized. A number of handbooks are under preparation. Activities will continue to further strengthen and expand computer-based information and documentation services at ROEAP.

Future prospect of the regional co-operative programme. The regional programme of higher education of ROEAP is relatively new compared to the other regional programmes of ROEAP. Its effective implementation began in 1983, although preparatory actions were undertaken in 1981. The programme was reviewed by a Regional Review Workshop in late 1985. The workshop indicated the future direction and substantive aspects of the programmes which include distance education and open university; problem-centred applied research; management of resources; and women's participation in higher education. UNDP's assistance is also expected for the continuation of the programme.

Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education in Asia and the Pacific. UNESCO's programmes in support of higher education in the region are wide ranging and some of them have far reaching consequences. One such significant development has been the adoption of the Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education in Asia and the Pacific. The Convention was adopted in the International Conference of States that took place in Bangkok in 1983 under the auspices of UNESCO. The convention has now been ratified by three Member States. It was the fifth and final regional convention. Similar conventions in most other regions have already been ratified and these form a prelude to the adoption of a world convention.

The conventions are geared towards the increased mobility of staff and students in higher education and promoting adoption of standards and mutual recognition of studies and diplomas. Commenting on the importance these conventions at the inaugural session of the International Conference of States in Bangkok, the Director-General of UNESCO stressed that, 'the conventions gave expression to a genuine desire for understanding, co-operation and peace which existed in all regions of the world, transcending all differences and surmounting all difficulties'.

UNESCO in action in the field of education and the world of work

UNESCO's Medium Term Plan (1984-1989) approaches the problem of the relationship between education and the world of work from three distinct but mutually complementary standpoints:

- i) the place of work within educational activities;
- ii) the relationship between education and employment; and
- iii) the development of technical and vocational education.

The objectives and principles of action of this programme, support the efforts of Member States in: (a) improving at all levels of education the attitudes of young people towards productive work and socially useful productive activities; (b) providing a better preparation for working life; and (c) developing and improving technical and vocational education.

In terms of the provisions of the Medium Term Plan, UNESCO ROEAP in co-operation with leading institutions and scholars in the

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Member States has undertaken a series of ten case studies on the policies, planning and administration of technical and vocational education. The studies provide a comparative picture of the development of technical and vocational education and aim at improvement of dissemination of the results of experiments and innovations in this important field of education in the region.

Regional workshops have emphasized qualitative improvement of technical and vocational education and the improvement of national educational and vocational guidance for girls and women.

UNESCO has also assisted Member States train key people in specific areas of technical and vocational education through mobile training team operations. Six countries have already participated. The specific fields which each country selected for in-country training were as follows: China: (a) Vocationalization of general education, and (b) Agricultural education and vocational training; India: Business and commercial education; Philippines: Development of software for technical teacher education; Pakistan: Curriculum development and preparation of instructional materials and books for technical education; Socialist Republic of Viet Nam: Curriculum development and instructional material/audio visual aids preparation for education in mechanical and agro-mechanization technologies; Nepal: Development of curriculum and instructional aids for technical and vocational education. UNESCO also provided resource persons to the countries to help the national faculty plan and conduct these training courses.

In addition, UNESCO has assisted Member States in the region identify, formulate, process and execute operational projects in the field of technical and vocational education.

Some of the important projects being executed by UNESCO ROEAP include:

- a) Development of a National Technical Teacher Training College, 17 polytechnics and three engineering colleges in Bangladesh under the funding support of the World Bank/ International Development Agency, and UNDP;
- b) Establishment of a Mahila (Women) Polytechnic in Bangladesh under Saudi Fund-in-Trust;
- c) Development and establishment of a National Polytechnic

Institute in Lao People's Democratic Republic under the funding support of WorldBank/IDA and UNDP;

- d) Improvement of Secondary Teacher Training in Lao People's Democratic Republic under the funding support of UNDP;
- e) Development of Technician Training in Burma under the funding support of UNDP; and
- f) Development of Practical Skill Training Programmes in Islamic Senior Secondary Schools/Madrasah Aliyah in Indonesia through the funding support of UNDP (being processed).

During the current biennium UNESCO ROEAP will continue to assist the Member States in (a) the improvement of their existing infrastructures for technical and vocational education; (b) the training of their key personnel for undertaking reforms of technical and vocational education; (c) providing expert advisory services on request; and (d) the identification, formulation, processing and execution of operational projects in the field of education and the world of work upon request by the Member States and funding agencies.

APEID activities in education and work

During APEID's third cycle Vocational and Technical Education was renamed Education and Work.

Between 1982 and 1986 a number of APEID activities have concentrated on introducing work experience and vocational subjects as an integral part of general secondary education. This originated from a Regional Planning Panel Meeting, held in 1982 in Bangkok. It gave new directions for restructuring the general education curricula so as to incorporate vocational guidance and counselling, work-oriented activities and various vocational subjects in the general education schools. As a follow-up of the Regional Planning Panel Meeting, a series of inter-country, inter-project study visits was organized, followed by undertaking of national studies on work as an integral part of general education. These national studies made reviews of policies, plans and emerging trends relating to work experience within the context of general education; made in-depth analyses of some vocational programmes implemented in the course

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of general education; and described selected pilot projects in the countries with innovative experiences in linking general education to the world of work.

Another major outcome was the preparation of nine national studies on the content of general education determined by the requirements for further occupational training and re-training, which would facilitate young unemployed graduates of the general education stream, as well as early school leavers and drop-outs, to receive appropriate occupational training or re-training leading to gainful employment or self-employment and entrepreneurship.

Main thrusts for the fourth programming cycle of APEID (1987-1991). Linking education to the world of work will continue to be one of the major concerns during the fourth programming cycle of APEID. The activities in this area will be focused on introducing work as an integral part of general education, aiming at a harmonious personality development by exposing pupils not only to scholastic areas for intellectual development, but also to situations where they have opportunities to work with their hands, use tools, develop some basic productive skills and positive attitudes towards manual labour. The major efforts during the next cycle of APEID in this particular area will be to provide school children with opportunities to participate in social and economic activities inside and outside the classroom, enabling them to understand scientific principles and processes involved in different types of work which are found in the physical and social environment. The major expected outcome will not confine itself only to just learning to do work; it should be work education, incorporating also, besides acquisition of employable skills, concrete forms of income-generating activities; socially useful productive work which is closely linked with local community development; and inculcating work ethics, proper work habits and discipline, pride in one's achievements, and respect for other's work.

The major outcomes during the next cycle period will include new approaches to introducing work as an integral part of general education, both at the primary and secondary level of education so as to enhance its relevance for all students and link it to real-life situations and problems; 'competencies-based' teaching training for handling the new work-oriented curricula; development of inter-disciplinary teaching/learning materials; training of key personnel

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for out-of-school work activities; and development of physical facilities and training materials for implementing work experience in and out of school.

In the area of Vocational and Technical Education the emphasis of the UNESCO/APEID activities will be:

- a) On improvements of methods, forms and structures of vocational and technical education; and
- b) On adapting of the curricula and the syllabuses for various specific technical subjects according to the changing needs of industrial/agricultural enterprises, implementing newly emerging technologies and technological changes in the production process.

Educational technology — stressing mass media and low-cost instructional materials

The use of educational technology by teachers, along with the development of low-cost instructional materials, was strongly emphasized as an interdisciplinary area of innovation in the first cycle of APEID. This led to a series of training workshops resulting in the publication of three volumes of inventories titled: *Low cost educational materials: how to make, how to use, how to adapt*. These publications rapidly gained vast popularity and became very useful tools for many teachers and teacher-educators. Some of them have been translated in national languages, enriching the national inventories on low-cost educational materials developed during this period.

During the third cycle of APEID a number of activities concentrated on the development of multi-media kits, designed to solve specific problems of teaching in commonly identified problem areas, such as teaching in one-teacher schools; large classes; and multi-cultural and minority classes. Another APEID activity was a series of regional and national activities on developing distance education systems and structures, including correspondence education, educational broadcasting and the use of satellite technology for educational purposes.

As in all education programmes, distance education methods of operation reflected various prevailing conditions in particular countries. For example, wherever books were not available in the

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national language, other means are being provided to facilitate distance learning. Distance education has had particular potential for non-formal education which is playing an increasingly important and visible role in meeting the needs of drop-outs, out-of-school youth and illiterate adults.

A number of activities during this period focused on the development, production and dissemination of primary level textbooks and other printed teaching/learning materials, emphasizing cost effectiveness.

A variety of regional and national activities resulted in revised curricula, improved textbooks and reading materials, particularly for primary education; all developed in national languages. Fiji, Samoa and Tonga have organized national training workshops to promote small scale production of textbooks and other printed teaching/learning materials.

The recent trends in developing information and communication technologies, which made a great impact on the educational process have been emphasized specifically during the third programming cycle of APEID through organizing the Third Asian Seminar on Educational Technology, and an Experts Planning Panel Meeting, both devoted to the promotion of the use of computers in education in educational administration and planning and in computer-aided instruction. The latter resulted in the publication entitled *Developing computer use in education – guidelines, trends and issues*.

The new thrusts for future activities in this area are: specific provision for the application of new technologies in education and utilization of information technology for improving the quality and efficiency of educational systems in the countries of the region. It may be summarized that the role of educational technology in education as a means as well as a subject of study, is an emerging area in all Member States of Asia and the Pacific, which will encourage further innovations to promote the use and application of information and communication technologies, including the use of computers as an aid to instruction.

Population education

Towards renovating formal education. Population education is perceived by educators and teachers as an innovation in that

instructional materials have a wide knowledge base, which are interdisciplinary in orientation and are based on multi-disciplinary research. As such, population content has been used to enrich relevant school subjects. Since population education is aimed at rational and responsible attitudes towards population problems which bristle with value-laden issues, new teaching/learning methodologies have emerged (e.g. problem solving/inquiry/discovery and values clarification). By virtue of the fact that population education is integrated in existing school subjects, it has become inevitable that its innovatory impact has also happened in other school subjects.

Catalyst for multi-sectoral collaboration. In many countries, different ministries and/or organizations are concerned with enhancement of the quality of life. Very often, though, the efforts of these ministries and organizations are not co-ordinated. Since population education acquires more relevance when interwoven into different non-formal education and development programmes, UNESCO deemed it necessary to initiate planning and development meetings at the national level, not only to facilitate the integration of population education in the programmes of different ministries and/or organizations, but also to serve as a catalyst in fostering collaborative efforts as well as to avoid unnecessary duplication of efforts of all concerned towards a common goal – the improvement of people's quality of life.

Participatory methodology. In non-formal population education, one invariably deals with out-of-school youth and adults who would actively participate in the programme only if they feel it helps them with problems that directly concern them. In view of this, the Regional Team has widely used participatory methodology in training field workers, called field operational seminars. The main thrust of this training modality consists of participatory activities in a rural community where trainees help the target audience identify problems and needs in the context of their socio-cultural and geographic settings. The population-related problems obstructing development efforts are identified through observations, questionnaires and interviews. The priority population-related problems become the foci of the development of curricular materials integrating population education contents with various development programmes.

Is there hope for the future? From 1972 to 1985, 24 countries in Asia and the Pacific launched national population education programmes, largely encouraged and sustained by UNFPA funding support and technical assistance from UNESCO. From 1970 to 1978, the main concern was its **acceptability** and **feasibility** as the education sector's contribution to a multi-disciplinary intervention strategy for curtailing unplanned population growth. From 1979 to 1985, the main concern was **accountability** — to show the effects and impact of population education on the target clientele — in the formal and non-formal education sectors. It appears that from 1986 onwards, the issue shall be that of **survival**. UNFPA and Government funding support to the programme seems to be declining *vis-a-vis* family planning programmes. In a few countries, population education is almost fully supported by UNFPA funding. With the gradual phasing out of UNFPA and other international funding support, will financial support to the programme be taken over by Governments? Could the Governments of developing countries afford it? Is it a priority educational programme?

The scenario appears to be bleak as, so far, very few Governments in the region include population education in their educational development plans. However, the participants of MINEDAP V provided a note of optimism for the programme. One of the resolutions unanimously adopted by the Conference recommends that population education be made an integral part of national education development plans of Member States in Asia and the Pacific. If, indeed, Member States pursue this recommendation, population education shall have a brighter future in the region.

Information and documentation services

The UNESCO ROEAP Library and Documentation Service was set up with the dual function of providing data for staff members of the Office as a whole, and serving educational researchers (governmental or private), especially in the Asia and Pacific region. The clearinghouse services involve the collection of information relating, primarily, to education but including other subjects of UNESCO competence about and from Asia and the Pacific. It also promotes exchange programmes and the diffusion of such information through publications and other means, in order to assist Governments, institutions and educational workers (researchers) both within

and from outside the region. It has an extensive collection of materials relating to the eradication of illiteracy.

Information diffusion and utilization is also an important aspect of APEID. In fact, its secretariat (ACEID), was primarily set up in UNESCO ROEAP to serve as a resource base to develop and strengthen the flow of information, through both written and visual means, in order to bring to the notice of the Member States the availability of various types of resources, in the form of experiences, personnel, information, materials and finance.

There is also a separate Clearing House for the dissemination of Population Education materials.

ROEAP Library. The Library performs a number of functions which are: (a) the acquisition of documents, mainly from Ministries of Education, universities, teacher training colleges and other educational research institutions, and publications received from the other UNESCO regional offices and UNESCO Headquarters; (b) current awareness services through the issue of acquisition lists on a fortnightly and bi-annual basis, and an annual publication; (c) inquiry and literature search services to handle requests from educational institutions in Thailand, and from overseas; (d) distribution, in conjunction with ACEID and Population Education Services, of all publications produced by ROEAP; (e) selective dissemination of information through bibliographies ranging from micro-level educational planning to the universalization of primary education, and support services in the form of reference materials to meetings organized by the Regional Office; (f) annual internship programmes in documentation and information services to train librarians, documentalists, information specialists and others; (g) technical advisory services in the Member States or delivered by correspondence; and (h) research and evaluation of readers' subject interests and the usefulness of disseminated materials.

Information service within the framework of APEID. The information service within the APEID framework is based on the assumption that information support should be looked upon as an integral part of the dynamic process by which a state of change is brought about and maintained in education. It is further based on the following principles:

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1. Information development is not, and was never viewed as, an isolated activity. It emerged as a necessary element in a more comprehensive approach to the exchange of experiences, training of personnel and co-operative development activities.
2. Information is problem-oriented, user-specific, and produced by practitioners of innovation. The problems faced and the experiences available are continuously reviewed under APEID, and the guidelines for the preparation of materials of various types have also been reviewed, and sometimes developed, by the participating Member States at meetings and workshops. The materials are written by those directly involved in the projects, or by visiting teams, who develop them in accordance with the relevance to their activities under way in their own countries.
3. The sense of involvement and identification with materials is widespread. Through operations at the national and inter-country levels, a very large number of persons have contributed to the information pool. All of them 'identify' themselves with the production of the materials as a whole. The second-level identification is created among the professionals by virtue of their institution being linked to the APEID network of research and development institutions.

The Tenth Regional Consultation Meeting on APEID, Bangkok, May 1986, stressed the importance of the information service of APEID in promoting the sharing of innovative practices and experiences. Based on the evaluation exercise conducted prior to the Meeting, it recommended that APEID should make a major effort to strengthen the dissemination process through the development of a news digest; the development of a computer-based information service; the translation service; and the development of a staff member with particular responsibility for the identification and transmission of information on educational innovation.

Population Education information dissemination. An integral part of the UNESCO Regional Programme in Population Education is a Population Education Clearing House. During the last 15 years, the Clearing House has contributed immensely in facilitating the

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flow of population education materials and information in Asia and the Pacific. In its 15 years of existence, the most significant developments in population education information dissemination are briefly discussed below.

Information resource base. In most of the country programmes, there is now a more organized and functional information resource base. The Regional Team assisted country projects to build such information base. More important, there are now more active information service facilities not only at the regional level, but also at the country level. This is partly because the Regional Team, through its Clearing House for Population Education, has trained those in-charge of population information dissemination.

Backstopping national activities. Based on the work plan and activities of country projects, the Clearing House undertakes literature searches to retrieve materials and information and send it to the national project staff for use in their various activities such as training, curriculum materials development, research and information dissemination. This is a departure from the practice of waiting for requests for materials from national project staff.

Repackaging. The main users of population education materials are teachers, non-formal educationists, headmasters, supervisors, curriculum developers and trainers who need actual curriculum and training materials which they can readily use instead of the traditional provision of bibliographies, indexes and accessions lists. Instead of sending materials regardless of interests and needs, selective dissemination of information, repackaged in different forms such as manuals, booklets, newsletters, etc. is done in an effort to match materials with information needs of target groups.

Publications and printing. The Publications and Printing Unit of ROEAP is a technical service, which has been put at the disposal of the advisory services and programme activities of ROEAP and the other Bangkok offices, emanating from the approved programme and budget adopted at the General Conference of UNESCO. The publications are basically within the fields of education, the social and human sciences and culture. The main aim of the publishing activities is to make known ROEAP actions and to spread knowledge of the activities, participated in by the Member States, in order to promote regional co-operation in the region.

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The main publications are usually offset printed documents that are bound in an attractive soft cover. They may be part of a series, or individual publications like studies, reports of meetings, research findings, resource materials, bibliographies, directories or large catalogues. Regular newsletters are also published. Minor publications are usually for internal consumption and mainly mimeographed.

An average of approximately 890 publications were produced annually during the period 1981-1985, of which 80-100 per year were main publications (i.e. around eight per month). From the point of view of workload and capacity, it is significant that the print-runs have risen over the years as regional demands have increased. In 1986 the APEID programme alone, which generates almost 50 per cent of the main publications, planned 47 titles for production, amounting to a total of 57,350 copies and more than 172 million pages.

There are two major, annual publications of ROEAP in terms of size and numbers of copies: *Education in Asia and the Pacific: reviews, reports and notes* presents special articles on the latest developments in education in the Member States and reviews significant new materials from one country considered to be of interest to readers in other countries; the *Bulletin of ROEAP* usually comprises regional overviews, specially commissioned country papers from prominent educationalists, specialists reviews and a comprehensive, annotated bibliographical supplement on a specific theme.

The main types of APEID publications are: inventories and annotations of innovative projects; case studies and portfolios of studies and experiences; handbooks produced as the outcomes of meetings on methods and procedures; modular instructional materials and instruction sheets which are usually exemplar self-instructional modules prepared for some area of innovation, either as an outcome of some APEID activity, or produced under contract with an APEID Associated Centre; occasional papers selected from reports of senior visitors, contributions from APEID meeting participants or from special contributions; APEID Newsletter; information materials on APEID; and reports of APEID meetings and workshops.

Publications of the future. The Publications Unit installed a dedicated word processor in 1984, the first computer in ROEAP. While it serves the functions of the Unit adequately, in terms of

versatility and speed, it is fast being overtaken by the numerous minicomputers now being used throughout the Office. So the question arises; How will the Unit operate in the future, for example at the time of the 50th Anniversary of UNESCO in 1996? The answer is: it will be far more computerized than today.

Without any attempt to be comprehensive it can be anticipated that there will be better compatibility of software, meaning that more manuscripts will be produced for publication, both in-house and externally, on diskettes. Amongst other things this will reduce the constant re-typing necessary at present and will assist editing and proofreading with the very comprehensive spelling checks that can be carried out in a matter of minutes. Laser printers will handle the rapid printing of text in many styles and sizes and also some graphics. The use of computers with an increasing number of graphics functions, including animation, means that draft cover designs, page layouts and charts may be less laboriously produced.

A final prediction is that, no matter what computer enthusiasts may say, the main effort in the years ahead will still be to produce printed material. After all, books constitute the cheapest means of accurate information, they are easy to store and retrieve and the reader needs no special equipment to gather the meaning of the text. One should always bear in mind that receivers of information are always people; never systems.

CULTURE AND THE FUTURE RACAP

The main functions of the Regional Adviser for Culture in Asia and the Pacific, with headquarters in Bangkok, comprise preservation and presentation of the cultural heritage — both physical and non-physical, cultural studies and cultural development, improvement of museums, creation and creativity and training of cultural personnel. Support also comes from the Sub-Regional Adviser for Culture in the Pacific based at the UNESCO Office for the Pacific States, Apia, Samoa.

The inventorying, collection, study, protection and dissemination of the non-physical heritage, providing appropriate intellectual, material and financial support to Member States for the purposes, *inter alia*, of recording the transcription of unwritten languages and preparation of linguistic atlases, spelling books and elementary dictionaries, is one area of activity. The Republic of Maldives is being assisted in the transcription and harmonization of its national language, known as Divehi. In the Pacific, a territorial survey of Oceanic music is taking place, a collection of, and studies in, the oral traditions of Polynesia and Micronesia are being made, and a Tongan dictionary is being compiled with UNESCO assistance.

UNESCO has launched a number of international campaigns for the preservation and safeguarding of the cultural heritage all over the world. The campaigns related to monuments and sites located in the Member States of Asia, are: the Ancient Monuments and site of Paharpur Vihara and Bagerhat (Bangladesh), where a master plan has been formulated and a plan of action established; Kathmandu Valley (Nepal), where amongst the imposing monuments constituting a remarkable heritage of mankind, the main part of the Hanuman Dhoka Palace Complex has been restored as the first part of an ongoing programme; Cultural Triangle (Sri Lanka), where work has been progressing steadily on the preservation of the monuments at Anuradhapura, Polonnaruwa, Kandy and Sigiriya, which represent a Buddhist tradition that has deeply impregnated the culture of the entire region; Sukhothai Historical Park (Thailand), site of Sukhothai

the ancient city of Thailand, literally meaning 'Dawn of Happiness', which fell in to disrepair after its glorious period in the fourteenth century, where restoration, conservation and archaeological excavations have been in progress for the last several years; and the Monuments of Hue (Viet Nam), situated in Hue, central Viet Nam, which have suffered the ravages of time and destruction by war and where work has been in progress for some time.

UNESCO is providing advisory services to Member States in the region for the improvement of museum management and display. Most of the museums in Asia and the Pacific lag behind in these fields of museology and yet the paucity of funds does not permit actual training for all concerned personnel. It is planned to get guidelines for management, display and curatorship, prepared through the International Council of Museums, which should be applicable to museums in the Member States.

The Regional Office will organize, in collaboration with the Thailand National Commission for UNESCO, the Federation for the Development of Utilitarian Handicrafts, and the World Crafts Council, a pilot training workshop for women handicraft workers in the techniques of dyeing and weaving skills.

To encourage the preparation and implementation, by Member States, of cultural development policies, programmes and projects which promote consideration of people's cultural rights and wishes, UNESCO plans to contribute to, and support, a cultural development project in one of the countries of Asia and the Pacific.

A multi-purpose workshop concerned with both research and practical action and based on a common training core for those active in cultural work, education and communication in the Pacific region, will help in identifying innovative methods of training cultural development personnel.

Member States will also be assisted in emergency rescue of cultural property, in the implementation of UNESCO Conventions and recommendations in the field of culture and sensitize Member States, Inter-governmental Organizations, and Non-governmental Organizations towards the significance of the World Decade for Cultural Development.

THE SOCIAL AND HUMAN SCIENCES RUSHSAP

The programme for the promotion of social and human sciences in the region has grown over the years, and has begun to have a regional character with increasing decentralization. More and more of the regional needs are reflected in UNESCO's programmes and activities, and a greater interaction and increasing regional co-operation are in evidence. Through the Regional Unit for Social and Human Sciences in Asia and the Pacific, assistance is provided to Member States for strengthening their social science infrastructures, and efforts are made to promote the inter-country exchange of social science knowledge and expertise.

The Social Science Disciplinary Survey programme overviews the social science situation in various countries; reviews the growth points of, and trends of research in, individual social sciences disciplines; and surveys the status of social sciences teaching in professional education. The programme has so far covered sociology and social anthropology, political science, economics, and international law. During the present biennium 1986-1987, 11 countries will be preparing reports on the status of psychology.

The most significant contribution towards promotion of regional co-operation has been the setting up of an Asia-Pacific Association of Social Science Research Councils (AASSREC) which completed a decade of its existence in 1985.

The Sixth Conference of AASSREC was held in September 1985, in Bali, Indonesia. The Conference was attended by 11 of the 12 member councils, and observers from the academies or councils of China, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Japan, Malaysia, and the Pacific Social Science Association. The Conference convened symposia on *Social sciences and the government*, and *Youth and society: viewpoints on future*. It also held a special session to discuss the prospects of establishing a Regional Network of Social Science Information and Documentation Centres. Prior to the Conference, several member councils organized national level seminars or discussions on the two symposia themes.

Current activities

The 7th Conference of AASSREC will be held in August 1987 in Seoul, Republic of Korea. Two symposia on (1) Resilience of Asian and Pacific Societies; and (2) Shelter for the Homeless will be organized in conjunction with the Conference.

In collaboration with AASSREC, a regional meeting of experts was held in May 1986 to develop a regional network of Social Science Information and Documentation Centres in Asia and the Pacific. The network, now called Asia-Pacific Information Network in Social Sciences (APINESS) has been formally established with the participation of some 16 countries. This network will closely work with the other UNESCO network on Science and Technology Information (ASTINFO), and help the social science community to develop and strengthen its infrastructure and capability in the field of information and documentation and stimulate regional co-operation.

Women and Youth are two population groups to which the unit has paid special attention. The unit recently completed the preparation of teaching materials for women's studies in India, Japan, Philippines, Thailand and Turkey. Thailand will soon publish the materials to be used in courses related to women at the university level. Some other countries are also planning publication of the



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materials. Work is continuing on the compilation of a Regional Directory of Women Social Scientists and of Institutions engaged in research on women; and a cross-cultural research project on Women: Domains of Decision, which involves India, Indonesia, Malaysia and Thailand. In 1987, a Regional Expert Meeting will be organized to discuss the findings of the project and evolve strategies to promote women's participation in public life.

UNESCO encourages and supports regional and national activities on youth. The unit supported the preparation of national profiles of youth in four countries. At the 6th General Conference of AASSREC, a special panel was organized to discuss 'Youth and Society: Viewpoints on Future'. AASSREC is to publish the proceedings of this symposium. AASSREC also undertook a review of the situation related to unemployment among youth in Asia.

As a follow-up of the Colombo meeting in 1984 on the teaching of human rights and international understanding, the unit commissioned the preparation of teaching materials on human rights in one country. Comic book-style materials were produced on child labour and prostitution, and a game was developed to promote knowledge on child labour and human rights.

UNESCO will also support the Law Association for Asia and the Western Pacific (LAWASIA) for its activities related to teaching of Human Rights.

SECTION TWO

UNESCO — ITS FIRST TWENTY-FIVE YEARS
IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

FELICITATIONS

Twenty-Five Years of Co-operation Between Thailand and the Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific

*by Suradej Visessurakarn**

It has been 25 years since Thailand offered to host the Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific (ROEAP) in Bangkok. Not only has Thailand provided UNESCO with office premises, facilities and the office's operating costs but it has also granted UNESCO's personnel with the privileges and immunities. Moreover, Thailand has closely collaborated with the Regional Office in hosting numerous regional meetings, workshops and seminars within UNESCO's fields of competence. In order to correspond with UNESCO's policy of decentralization, Thailand has recently approved the renaming of the Regional Office to the Principal Regional Office of UNESCO for Asia and the Pacific, which will enable the Office to widen its scope of work and responsibility to cover all fields of its competence namely education, science, culture, social science and communication.

It is rather difficult to give full account of all the activities in which Thailand has participated for the past 25 years. Thus, only some recent activities will be cited in this article.

Regional meetings. Thailand, in co-operation with the Regional Office, accepted to co-host the Fifth Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning in Asia and the Pacific, which is better known as MINEDAP V, from 4-11 March 1985. Two hundred and fifty representatives at both the ministerial and high levels from 22 countries attended the Conference to review the status of education in the region and discuss the priority goals towards which educational development may be focused in the coming years. During the conference, an

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exhibit was held by Thailand and UNESCO to provide information on educational development in the participating countries. H.E. the Prime Minister of Thailand kindly inaugurated the Conference and officially opened the exhibit. Her Royal Highness Princess Sirinthorn graciously visited the exhibit as well. The outcome of the Conference was quite successful and the recommendations made at the Conference were presented to the Committee on Regional Co-operation in Education in Asia and the Pacific so as to enable the Meeting to propose measures to reinforce regional co-operation.

Prior to MINEDAP V, Thailand hosted the International Conference of States with a View to Adoption of the Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education in Asia and the Pacific, in Bangkok in December 1983 where 150 participants from 30 countries, international and non-governmental organizations took part.

In hosting such international conferences, the Thailand National Commission for UNESCO has had good opportunities to render full co-operation and assistance to the Regional Office. Though having to shoulder some expenses and devote time and energy to making necessary arrangements, Thailand is pleased to witness the intellectual exchanges among the member countries, hoping that the interaction will bring about favourable development in education in the region.

Sub-regional and national workshops; seminars and training. Besides regional conferences, Thailand has also hosted numerous sub-regional and national workshops; seminars and training among which are:

1. Technical Working Group Meeting on the Use of Advances in Communication Technologies for Educational Purposes (1985);
2. National Workshop on Computer Applications in Information Storage, Retrieval and Dissemination (1984);
3. National Workshop for Developing Learning Materials and Training Manuals for Post-Literacy Activities (1985); and
4. First, Second, Third Sessions of the Working Group for the International Campaign for the Preservation and Presentation of Sukhothai (1982, 1983, 1985).

Felicitations

The Thailand National Commission for UNESCO has collaborated with the national agencies and authorities concerned to organize the above-mentioned meetings. Representatives from the Regional Office are always invited to serve as resource persons as well as participants in the meeting.

As regards training, the Thailand National Commission has also hosted training activities in collaboration with the Regional Office. The notable examples are:

1. Information Officers Training in Asia and the Pacific;
2. Regional Training Workshop on the Development of Distance Education Instructional Materials (1985);
3. National Training Workshop on Improvement of Low-Cost Housing Materials (1985); and
4. Training Course on Education for Peace and Respect for Human Rights and the Rights of Peoples (1985).

Study visits. At the request of the Regional Office, the Thailand National Commission for UNESCO has arranged programmes of visits for participants from the Member States. The duration of study-visits ranges from 2-3 days to 2-3 months. Thailand has carefully set the programmes according to the needs and length of stay requested by the participants to ensure that they will gain utmost benefit from the visits. In this manner, the Thailand National Commission has always had close consultation with the Regional Office and the authorities concerned.

Information. Thailand has regularly received publications and news from the Regional Office, especially through the Regional Information Officer. Other relevant documents and publications can also be obtained from the Regional Office library. One significant contribution which was provided by the office is the assistance to establish the Library and International Documentation Centre of the External Relations Division, Ministry of Education. On the occasion of the Rattanakosin Bicentennial Celebration in 1982, UNESCO, in addition to its valuable advisory service, donated 600 titles of books and documents published by UNESCO in the various fields of its competence, and an amount of financial assistance for furniture and equipment of the library.

Programmes/projects. Thailand has been actively participating in APEID since its inception in 1974. In the past 12 years, it participated in or organized more than 200 APEID activities at both regional and national levels. Studies on educational innovation have also been prepared. At present, 14 institutions in Thailand are involved as Associated Centres of APEID.

National Campaign Against Illiteracy. The National Campaign Against Illiteracy was launched in Thailand in 1982 in view of the fact that 14.5 per cent of the population aged 14 years and above was illiterate. The Regional Office has actively helped the Government carry out the campaign from the very beginning. Consequently in 1985, Thailand is proud to be granted by the UNESCO Regional Office the first prize in the Nessim Habif competition for audio-visual media, and third prize for supplementary readers for neo-literates.

Population Education Project. The Population Education Project is another example of co-operation between the Regional Office and Thailand. The office has organized various seminars and workshops, aimed to encourage the Member States to be aware of the problems arising from the population increase and at the same time, disseminate information on this issue to the Member States.

International Campaign for the Preservation and Presentation of Sukhothai. Since UNESCO made an appeal to the international community and started a worldwide campaign for the preservation and presentation of Sukhothai, the Regional Advisor for Culture has been assigned to co-ordinate with Thailand and play an important role in helping Thailand set guidelines for implementation. Advisory services and continued financial assistance from the international campaign have made Sukhothai better known among the international community.

In conclusion, Thailand and the Regional Office have had excellent co-operation for 25 years. On the occasion of the 40th Anniversary of UNESCO, Thailand very much hopes that the existing friendly relations will be further strengthened. Furthermore, Thailand firmly believes that closer co-operation among the Member States and UNESCO will enable UNESCO to effectively undertake its assigned tasks, and the ideal of promoting peace in the world will be even more imminent.

ROEAP's Co-operation to ACCU's Literacy Programme

*by Taichi Sasaoka**

Services and achievements that the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific (ROEAP) have rendered and accomplished, making full use of its decentralized responsibilities, for educational development in Asia and the Pacific are, indeed, worthy of every possible praise and appreciation.

The Asian Cultural Centre for UNESCO (ACCU) has been promoting various regional programmes in three fields, namely book development, cultural activities and literacy, in line with UNESCO's basic principles. The feature of its programmes can be said to be the joint production of concrete materials and training of personnel with the participation of UNESCO Member States in Asia and the Pacific and with the co-operation of UNESCO. In the course of implementation of such programmes and utilization of the end products, ACCU has been enjoying close co-operation from ROEAP. There is a particularly close relationship between the two in the field of literacy.

ACCU's literacy programme is a regional joint programme aiming at the promotion of literacy activities in Asia and the Pacific. Inaugurated in 1980, this particular programme is rather new to ACCU. But with strong and keen support from participating countries and UNESCO, it has been showing rapid growth in its budgetary framework and scale of activities year by year. Consequently, this literacy programme has now become one of the three important fields of activities. This rapid and outstanding growth owes much to UNESCO, particularly to technical and financial support of ROEAP, for which we always feel deep gratitude.

The initiative for ACCU taking up a literacy programme was the Regional Planning Committee Meeting of the Asian Copublication Programme held at ACCU in June 1979. At this meeting, it was

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proposed by the participants that ACCU might launch a 'copublication of reading materials useful for rural development' in the region, based on rich experience in the past on the copublication of children's books. This new idea was welcomed by the participants and they expressed unanimously strong and keen hope for its realization.

Then, the late Mr. Ryoji Ito, former Director-General of ACCU, consulted Mr. M'Bow, who visited ACCU in autumn 1979. As a result of this discussion, Mr. M'Bow expressed his support to this new challenge for ACCU and promised UNESCO's technical and financial assistance through ROEAP. It was the strongest incentive and encouragement for ACCU to make up its mind to take up this new programme in the field of rural development.

Taking opinions of experts from participating countries and ROEAP into due consideration, ACCU drew up a concrete plan of action to produce simple, enjoyable and useful material designed for neo-literates in rural areas. In the course of this development, we cannot forget Mr. Roy Singh's deep understanding and constructive guidance rendered to ACCU from his long experience and wide perspective. Meanwhile ACCU made its own efforts to construct a financial base by securing a subsidy from the Government of Japan, and started preparatory work by reviewing relevant documents and reports produced by ROEAP.

ACCU is now conducting three sub-programmes under the literacy programme for neo-literates with the participation of 12 countries, where illiteracy is still a vital social problem, and with substantial co-operation of ROEAP as follows:

The first sub-programme is the production of prototype materials commonly usable in participating countries, blending the experience of ACCU in book development and cultural activities with the know-how of the respective countries. For this purpose, ACCU holds an annual regional meeting of experts for the production of materials for neo-literates, where contents, themes and formats of future products are decided upon. An Educational Adviser from ROEAP attends as a consultant on the production of quality prototypes usable in this region.

The *Guidebook for development and production of materials for neo-literates*, published in 1985 was the fruit of the co-operation of participating countries, ROEAP and ACCU. This Guidebook,

presents the theory and practice of production of good literacy materials with a lot of illustrations. Obviously this Guidebook could not have been completed without co-operation of ROEAP and ACCU. The prototype materials and the Guidebook are in English, but have already been translated into a number of local languages for wider use.

The second sub-programme is the contribution to training of personnel engaged in materials production for neo-literates. For this purpose, ACCU organizes a regional workshop on material production for neo-literates in Asia and the Pacific. This annual regional workshop, so far held in Japan/Philippines (1983), Thailand (1984) and Japan (1985), is organized through close collaboration between the Ministry of Education of the host country, ROEAP and ACCU. Special credit must go to ROEAP for its technical and financial assistance. This workshop aims at giving participants an opportunity to learn theory and practice of material production through actual working processes in joint production and field testing in villages. The programme and way of operation of this workshop are highly evaluated by the participating countries and are actually adapted for national workshops. The plan of this regional workshop is decided upon by consultation between ROEAP and ACCU, and the attendance of Educational Advisers of ROEAP as consultants is greatly appreciated so as to bring an effective and successful management of the workshop.



Opening of Second Regional Workshop on Preparation of Literacy Follow-up Materials in Asia and the Pacific (1984, Chiangmai), with attendances of representatives of ROEAP, Ministry of Education of Thailand and ACCU

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The third and final sub-programme is to send an international mobile team of experts to support national workshops organized by the respective countries for their own literacy personnel. While the second sub-programme aims at training selected leading personnel from each country, this national workshop aims at training a relatively large number of workers in each country.

The first such team was sent to Nepal in 1986, with a consultant from ROEAP. ACCU and the Ministry of Education of Nepal owed much to his contribution in programming the workshop, the selection of experts and workshop management.

ROEAP has been playing a vital role in promoting ACCU's literacy programme. If ACCU's programme is making some contribution to the eradication of illiteracy in this region, it is due to active participation of the countries concerned and close collaboration from ROEAP. ACCU is determined to further develop its literacy programme with high priority in the years to come, and therefore, we have to ask for continued support from ROEAP.

As mentioned earlier, ACCU is conducting various production programmes in the field of, not only literacy, but book development and cultural activities. We should like to express, in the end, our sincere hope that ROEAP will give ACCU further guidance and support in promoting utilization of its materials on the educational scene, and in devising how ACCU could contribute more to the educational field with experience in book development and cultural activities.

ROEAP and its Relations with NIER

*by Isao Suzuki**

First of all, may I extend to all the staff members of the UNESCO Regional Office in Bangkok and those who work for UNESCO my sincere good wishes for the twenty-fifth anniversary of the UNESCO ROEAP. In 25 years of dedicated services in the cause of educational development of the region, ROEAP has made an outstanding contribution to building up and directing the programme for educational development in the Asian and Pacific region.

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On this great occasion, I consider it a great honour to be Director General of NIER, which has a long history of its close link with UNESCO, having shared efforts to promote regional co-operation in education.

I have been working for a long time in the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture in Japan, and 20 years ago, I was working for the Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education as Division Director for Textbook Administration. I recall what we were struggling for at the bureau in that year, for example, the problems of coping with quantitative expansion of educational population, particularly in upper secondary schools. Accompanied by Japan's rapid economic growth in the 1960s, the enrolment in upper secondary schools was about to make a remarkable expansion. In fact, when ROEAP was created, the advancement rate to upper secondary schools was 72 per cent. During the next five years it reached 85 per cent and at the end of the next five years it was 93 per cent. We experienced a 20 per cent increment in the advancement ratio to upper secondary schools during the 1960s. Thus, we were busy coping with this expansion, in terms of quantitative development of educational facilities and the number of teachers as well as qualitative reforms such as diversification of the courses and content, and the selection system.

At the personal level, my direct contact with ROEAP began when I attended the Fourth Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning in Asia and Oceania held in Colombo, Sri Lanka, in July/August 1978, organized by UNESCO. Through the Conference I learned that national development strategies in countries of Asia and the Pacific strongly require relevance of education to national development goals, and that education is considered as imperative to national development. In this regard I was given a good perspective to review the progress of education within the socio-economic and cultural development in the region. Among many issues discussed at the Conference, I noted the intensive efforts being made to tackle, for example, the problems of eradication of illiteracy, low enrolment and high drop-out rates in elementary/primary schools, and the high ratio of youth unemployment. When I was exposed to these crucial problems of education in the region, I was then able to review the problems and issues attached to secondary education in Japan from a different angle in a broader context.

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I was appointed to Director-General of NIER in April 1985, and six months later I was given the opportunity to visit the UNESCO Regional Office in Bangkok and educational institutions in Thailand, Malaysia and Indonesia and to meet educators in these countries. This trip was kindly arranged by ROEAP. During my visits, I had very exciting and fruitful experiences, observing various educational situations in the three Asian countries and familiarizing myself with the work of the Associated Centres of APEID. On every occasion during my visits, I was very much impressed with the dedication of teachers and educators who devote themselves for the cause of education, in spite of insufficiency of such supporting resources as facilities, teaching materials and others. I also had opportunities for meeting and discussing with a good number of personnel in such different specialities as educational planning, administration and research. I noted all of them were very conscious about their national goals, and they really committed themselves to the objectives and targets set for educational development in their own countries. In these countries every effort seems to be made to develop the country through education, making the educational development relevant to socio-economic development. People were very keen to learn from the experiences of others in improving their education.

UNESCO's activities in the promotion of inter-country co-operation and sharing of experiences among countries have been playing a vital role to the cause of educational development in the region. APEID is a good and typical example of UNESCO's effort. I realize that APEID is really innovative in nature, being a mutual support system for educational innovation and development, and a programme of self-reliance for the efforts and direction in educational development. I understand that when NIER initiated its programme for educational development in 1967 it was rather a superficial idea with the understanding that international co-operation must be promoted in the field of educational research. In the process of development of APEID in the region, NIER itself has become convinced that mutual learning through the network of APEID is really beneficial to the society of Japan in various senses. It is my firm conviction that NIER should make every effort for further strengthening of closer links between educational institutions of Asia and the Pacific and NIER, not only for the cause of educational development in individual countries concerned but also for the survival of human society in the century to come.

I believe that one of the UNESCO's principles is its conviction that though the stage of development may differ from one country to the next, the cultural and human values in different societies are equal. I strongly endorse this spirit and I do hope UNESCO will develop further in the coming years, for the cause of educational, scientific and cultural development of the human being, in spite of difficulties that UNESCO faces in the current world situation. I further express my sincere wishes that NIER will continue to enjoy its closer ties with UNESCO.

STOU's Reflections on Significant Activities of ROEAP

*by Wichit Srisa-an**

The United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) was established at a London conference in November 1945. In 1946 it became a specialized agency of the United Nations. Its purpose was to further the cause of peace by increasing understanding among nations through education and research. The organization was the culmination of almost 40 years of attempts to establish international co-operation in education and culture and is a successor to the League of Nations International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University (STOU) recognizes and admires UNESCO's purpose and activities. UNESCO's activities deal largely with educational development, as shown by the following general aims: expanding and directing education so as to enable the people of every country to further their own development; and developing means of communication in order to facilitate a balanced flow of information, and information systems for the universal pooling of knowledge. UNESCO is geared to act even in crisis situations, such as when, for example, it set up emergency schools for Arab refugee children in the Middle East.

UNESCO has inaugurated many successful and useful projects for educational development. Over half of the world's children of school age do not attend school because of insufficient facilities and

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lack of teachers. In 1957 UNESCO instituted a major project on the extension of primary education in Latin America designed to train more teachers and study the reasons for children dropping out of school. Successful elements of this programme were later applied to similar projects in Asia and Africa.

In developing countries, educational development activities are greatly needed. The role of education in helping to develop human resources has an immense influence upon the progress of these countries. In 1961 UNESCO established the Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific (ROEAP) which has played a significant role in educational development in the region. For its part, Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University (STOU) believes that all countries participating in ROEAP, including Thailand, have greatly benefited from the latter's activities.

STOU has participated in various ROEAP projects which provide opportunities for sharing knowledge, experience and skills through meetings, training workshops, study visits, joint research studies and exchanges of information. One of the most important components of the projects is related to distance education and the open structure associated with it. STOU has played a key role in formulating and implementing these project activities in distance education, such as the project entitled 'Regional Co-operative Programme in Higher Education for Development' which includes many useful activities. Examples of these activities include 'The Technical Working Group Meeting on the Use of Advances in Communication Technologies in Higher Education', and 'The Regional Training Workshop on the Development of Distance Education Instructional Materials'.

The Technical Working Group Meeting on the Use of Advances in Communication Technologies in Higher Education was held for six working days in June 1985 at STOU's headquarters in Nonthaburi. There were participants from Australia, India, Indonesia, Japan, New Zealand and Thailand. In addition, members of staff from UNESCO joined the meeting, which enabled STOU and all participants to examine and study the possibilities, afforded by advances in communication technology, for improving educational methods and for organizing distance teaching systems, including the analysis of the use and limitations of computer technology in relation to the administration of higher education institutions.

The Regional Training Workshop on the Development of Distance Education Instructional Materials was held over a period of ten working days in September 1985 at STOU's headquarters. There were 12 participants from Bangladesh, China, India, Indonesia, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines, the Republic of Korea, Socialist Republic of Viet Nam, Sri Lanka, and Thailand. The participants were introduced to various principles, practices, and issues related to the development of instructional materials. They underwent practical experience of developing such materials in print, audio and video media. The workshop produced a package of materials which included a report on the workshop, a set of technical papers and a workbook, and also sets of printed materials, audio cassettes and video cassettes as sample packages for dissemination and use by concerned institutions.

From the evidence of the examples above, every activity organized by ROEAP is useful to educational development in the region. STOU recognizes that the activities will benefit higher education in Asia and the Pacific through the exchange of educationists in the region, increasing the efficiency of the instruction systems of higher education in the region, the exchange of knowledge and experiences concerning teaching and learning at the higher education level, and providing direction in the analysis and revision of higher education plans.

As the Lead Institution for the Consortium on Innovation in Higher Education in Asia and the Pacific, STOU organized the Attachment Programme for Personnel in Distance Education. The programme, an example of co-operation between STOU and UNESCO, was held at STOU's headquarters in November – December 1985. There were seven UNESCO scholars from China, India, Indonesia and Pakistan. They had an opportunity to participate in the seminar and to observe and study STOU's experience in the four areas concerned: computer application in the management of distance education; the use of media in distance education; programme development; and evaluation in distance education, and the organization and management of distance education.

Finally, STOU hopes for the continuation of the co-operation among STOU, other academic institutions and ROEAP, in order to develop education in the region further.

BACKGROUND

UNESCO Regional Office for Education: Twenty-Five Years

*Raja Roy Singh**

Greetings and felicitations to UNESCO and its Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific on the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Regional Office. All those associated with the work of the Regional Office, now or in the past, look upon the occasion with a feeling of pride for what has been accomplished, mixed with profound thankfulness for the opportunities which association with the Regional Office provided for serving the cause of education in the ancient continents of Asia and the Pacific.

These 25 years have spanned the founding and the growth of the Regional Office conforming to a striking degree, to the stages of development as we know them from the body of experiences in institution building. First is the **formative stage** initiated on a new idea or mission; this is followed by a **stage of growth** in which the mission goals are expanded and deepened and different ways of realizing the goals are explored. Then comes the **stage of maturity** in which the best experiences generated in the process of institutional growth are diffused and multiplied, each branch becoming a tree. This kind of typology does not of course imply any inevitability of progress from one stage to another. An institution is a living organism, and all too often an institution, like an organism, may get fixed at the formative stage and fail to grow, or it may regress from the stage of growth to the narrow confines of the formative stage.

The Regional Office's 25 years have also coincided in a significant way with the evolution of UNESCO's mission goals and ways of reaching them; indeed, the Regional Office owed its origin to a larger movement in UNESCO, and even beyond in several constituents of the United Nations system. The core of this larger movement and

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search lay in the perception that the mission of international co-operation needed to be reviewed in the context of the emerging and quite different community of nations.

The Regional Office for Education in Asia was UNESCO's first education office at a regional level, in the world; it was not, however, the first regional office of UNESCO. In the 1950s UNESCO had established a number of science co-operation offices (two in Asia) with the purpose of promoting inter-country exchange of scientific information and scientific personnel; in the early 1960s UNESCO established in Bangkok a regional centre for educational information and studies (which was merged with the Regional Office when the latter was subsequently set up).

The first landmark was in 1960 when the representatives of Asian Member States, with the co-operation of UNESCO, developed a regional plan for primary education (known as the Karachi Plan). Within the framework of the Karachi Plan, UNESCO established a cluster of regional centres/offices — three regional centres dealing respectively with educational planning (New Delhi), teacher education (Quezon City), and school buildings (Bandung/Colombo) and a Regional Office at Bangkok in order to co-ordinate the activities of the three centres. The three centres were institutions of the respective host governments, which provided certain programmes of a regional character. Another development was the initiation of a conference of the education ministers of the Member States which was to meet periodically. The first conference met in Tokyo in 1962. The Regional Office of Education was made responsible for preparing the conference and following up on its recommendations.

This formative stage of the Regional Office was characterized by certain 'new' mission goals which gave a strong expanding impetus, and also limitations which tended to narrow the scope of work. For the first time in UNESCO's work regional action as a form of international co-operation came into play, opening new prospects of collective effort. It is significant that a similar trend developed at the same time in other major United Nations agencies, e.g. FAO, ILO, UNECOSOC. The view that international co-operation could only be promoted by 'centre-based action' (centre-periphery model) was challenged by an increasing recognition of the implications of a rapidly growing United Nations membership and

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the wide diversities of economic, social, cultural and political conditions which the membership represented.

Another characteristic of the new mission goals of the Regional Office was the linkage of international co-operation with socio-economic development. The focus on 'development' highlighted the basic problems of poverty, disease, ignorance hunger, illiteracy. In terms of UNESCO's mission in the field of education, it meant an active policy of engagement in the efforts of the Member States in solving their problems of education in the context of their economic and social conditions. 'Co-operation for Development' was an important guiding concept and remains valid today too, despite its use often as a mere slogan, from which the polish has been worn off by empty repetitions.

Thus the Regional Office was, in UNESCO, a mould to form new shapes. There were, however, also limitations hedging in the mission goals. First, the function of the Regional Office was defined as a 'relay post', which brought in the 'centre-periphery' model with a vengeance, and negated the regional approach. Second, the Regional Office and the three centres were limited to primary education, which created a wholly artificial division in considering education in the context of economic and social development. Third, the Regional Office had no programme of its own in relation to the regional and national realities.

These limitations were vigorously called into question by the first regional conference of the ministers of education (Tokyo, 1962), which recommended to UNESCO to develop a plan covering all levels and types of education — (this resulted in the *Asian Model of Educational Development* which was considered and approved by the ministers in their next conference at Bangkok in 1965).

The decade of the 1960s broadly covered the 'formative stage' — one might even be tempted to say that it was a rather long formative stage. With the third regional conference of ministers of education held in Singapore in mid-1971, a new phase opened in the regional programmes and for the Regional Office of Education. Quite appropriately this can be referred to as the 'stage of growth'. The turning point was UNESCO's action (at long last) towards a measure of programme and administrative decentralization. This made it possible to relate action to needs. Within a short period of

two years (between the Singapore conference and the end of the biennium budget period) the Regional Office had been transformed, with new and expanded mission goals. A decisive factor was the leadership role of Mr. Amadou Mahtar M'Bow who was then the Assistant Director-General of Education at UNESCO. The Regional Office mission covered all levels of education, and mechanisms were developed for constant consultations with the Member States whose participation in regional co-operation activities rose dramatically. The experience of the Asian Regional Office over the whole period was valued significantly enough for UNESCO to establish similar Regional Offices in 1973-1975 in Africa, Latin America and the Arab States.

The Singapore Conference (1971) and UNESCO's action on its major recommendations broke new ground in the modalities of regional and international co-operation. The basic approach lay in the recognition that the relationship of co-operation in education is not one of 'donor' on the one hand and a receiving 'beneficiary' on the other hand. Each participating country has something to give and something to receive; these capacities of ideas, skills and experiences and their mobilization for common sharing should be the substance of regional and international co-operation. The Singapore conference recommendation led to the Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development which, for the next nearly 12 years or so, gave in action and in concepts the animating spirit of regional co-operation across political and all other differences becoming a forum of co-operative action for all Member States developed and developing.

The stage of growth of the Regional Office is replete with other initiatives equally significant sponsored by the Member States, UNESCO, other United Nations agencies — action to combat adult illiteracy, universal primary education, science and technology education, educational planning and management, technical and vocational education, population education and a co-operative programme in higher education.

During the growth stage of the Regional Office, the number of Member States in the region increased dramatically. In 1965 when the second regional conference of ministers of education met at Bangkok, there were 17 Member States in the Asian region representing less than 50 per cent of the population of historical Asia; in 1985

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when the fifth conference met again in Bangkok, there were 31 Member States. In the mid-1970s the countries in the Pacific area joined the region and brought a new accession of strength to its co-operative action — (the region was renamed Asia and the Pacific). The ministerial conference, meeting periodically, and the standing advisory committee set up a few years ago, have proved themselves as powerful mechanisms for promoting inter-country co-operation and action, as vehicles of new ideas and initiatives and innovative programmes, for critical appraisals, and for cementing regional co-operation and linking it with national needs. If these important and invaluable mechanisms are weakened — as they would be if they are marginalized or not given adequate operation room — the whole structure of regional co-operation (and a significant aspect of international co-operation) would be unravelled.

The Regional Office has been, first and foremost, an educational institution rather than a 'bureau' and the people associated with it have been an educational community. The services it has rendered are as an educational forum. As it approaches the twenty-fifth anniversary, the occasion may well mark its transition to yet another stage of dynamic evolution. In its continued development, it will have the profound goodwill of the Member States and all those who have been associated with it through these years of fruitful endeavour in promoting the cause of education.

Growing Up in UNESCO — with ROEAP

*Ananda W.P. Guruge**

Coming to know UNESCO

The closing half of the 1950s were, for UNESCO, a period of hope and enthusiasm, besides youthful vigour. In every field of competence, important long-term plans, characterized by a forward-looking concentration on glaring problems of the day, were in operation or preparation. UNESCO's presence in its Member States was both visible and effective. The General Conference of 1956

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held in New Delhi had fired the imagination of the Asian continent. Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru's encomium to UNESCO as 'the conscience of mankind' was widely endorsed.

Sharing in no mean measure the enthusiasm of the new leadership of emerging nations and the confidence placed in them by their more experienced partners or, more precisely, their erstwhile rulers, UNESCO set for itself ambitious targets. For example, in education, the elimination of illiteracy loomed large as a priority for action. In culture, a ten-year Major Project sought to dispel misunderstandings and misinformation which centuries of 'ruler-ruled' relations had nurtured mutually with regard to cultural values of the East and the West. In science and technology education, projects sprang up all over the developing world to build and equip science laboratories and workshops, train teachers, produce textbooks and learning materials and combat the prevailing preference for academic studies and white-collar jobs.

If you pour in enough money to fill lacunae in technical know-how by means of expatriate experts, to develop national capacities through fellowships to foreign universities and institutions and to supply what the meagre foreign exchange resources could not bring into a country, any under-developed (N.B. the term was then acceptable) country would soon come to its own,

was a firmly held creed both within and outside UNESCO. There was, of course, ample literature by eminent economists to support this strategy.

My first association with UNESCO, 30 years ago to the exact date of writing, was during this memorable era of unmitigated faith and confidence and corresponding action. With my transfer to the Ministry of Education, I became the officer responsible for the UNESCO National Commission, which I recall was an active forum of the best known savants of my country. My first visit to UNESCO Headquarters (still at 19 Avenue Kleber, with only the shell of the Fontenoy building completed) was in connection with the East-West Major Project. Nothing could have been more inspiring for a young man than to imbibe the philosophy and the idealism of international solidarity and co-operation from men who were household names in literature, history, education, international relations and such other

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fields. The result was a lifelong commitment to an ideal, even though some would call it a dream.

The birth of the Karachi Plan and the regional initiative. Thus in 1959, I found myself in Karachi, Pakistan, representing my country in a 15-member meeting on Primary Education in Asia. I was already a mature hand in UNESCO affairs — senior enough to be elected the Chairman of one of the two Sub-Commissions. I recall this meeting not only for its final product, the much-discussed Karachi Plan for Free and Compulsory Primary Education in Asia but, more so, for the rude shocks to which all participants were subjected as data on enrolments, attendance, teacher-pupil ratios, teacher quality and average catchment areas of schools for each country were presented with such convincing concern by J.P. Naik and Shamshul Haq (two of the greatest educators to be produced in recent times in the Indian Sub-Continent). It was, to say the least, a dismal and utterly discouraging picture. The figures seemed to say everything. They explained our poverty, our backwardness and our shameful complacency.

To a crowd of government officials who hung their heads in genuine shame, Malcolm Adiseshiah, the young and energetic representative of UNESCO's Director-General, whose enthusiastic optimism has been as infectious as his ever-present smile, spoke of the progress in Disarmament Talks in Geneva and the prospects of endless resources unleashed by disarmament to educational development. Thus encouraged, we approved the Karachi Plan with its twenty-year target (1960-1980) and moved resolutions requesting UNESCO's presence in Asia and regional centres in specified fields. We underscored the need to get our Ministers to commit. 'Get them to sign up their will to act', we said. I flew back to Colombo with the satisfaction that something big and important started in Karachi and that I was privileged to be a part of it. But I could not have, at that moment, visualized either how big it was going to be or how much of the best years of my life would be dedicated to this dream. The dream of universal free education of at least seven years in Asia, of course, appeared to be real and realizable.

The emergence of the Regional Office for Education in Asia. The first Asian Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning took place in April 1962 in Tokyo and, again, I was there with my Minister of Education. In

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the intervening years we had taken stock of our educational situation. Sri Lanka had reason to be proud. Starting with universal free education at all levels as far back as 1945, the quantitative target was nearly achieved. In this direction we had experiences to share. But our concern was in quality. The frequent reminder by our delegation that sudden quantitative expansion might erode quality proved to be irksome to several delegations. But we knew the dangers of spreading the butter thin. After ten days of deliberations, wherein internationally recognized specialists in educational economics provided the encouragement wherever realities appeared daunting, our Ministers signed the report in a solemn ceremony declaring their 'will to act'.

Things began to happen fast after Karachi. The Regional Office for Education had come into being in the wing of an old palace in Bangkok with the co-ordinator of the Karachi meeting, Mr. A.F.M.K. Rahman, as its first Director. Regional Centres for Educational Planning and Administration (AIEPA), Teacher Education (AITE) and School Building Research (ARISBR) were established in New Delhi, India, Quezon City, Philippines and Bandung, Indonesia respectively. Japan's National Institute of Educational Research (NIER) assumed regional responsibilities. Three member teams of international experts in education, economics and statistics went to each Member State to assist national professionals to prepare 20 year perspective plans to achieve the Karachi target.

The regional centres embarked on training courses, seminars and research activities. The Regional Office produced technical documents and functioned as a clearing house. The national professionals, who had, hitherto, had little contact with colleagues from other countries began to exchange views and experiences. A whole continent was being knit together in working towards a common goal. It was indeed a very nice feeling — a feeling of belonging to a growing community, bound together by common professional interests and challenges brought to the foreground by comparative studies of one another's national situations. We had more than enough reason to be grateful to UNESCO for playing what was really a catalytic role.

To recall my own experience, how else could I have had such easy and ready access to the advice and guidance of pre-eminent educators of the region like Ali Toussi of Iran, C.D. Deshmukh, K.G.

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Saiyidain, J.P. Naik and Prem Kirpal of India, K. Nishida of Japan, M. Sheriff and Shamshul Haq of Pakistan, Yung-Dug-Lee of Republic of Korea, Haji Hamdan of Malaysia, Waldo Perfecto of the Philippines, Manich Jumasai of Thailand, Hutasoit of Indonesia and Ruth Wong of Singapore? Equally inspiring and helpful were the staff of UNESCO: Adiseshiah with his indomitable faith in the prayer of Rabindranath Tagore, 'Into that heaven of freedom, my father, let my country awake'; Rahman, the quiet but determined and efficient organizer; Pires, a pioneering innovator in teacher education; and Vickery and Sheath, the inseparable geniuses bristling with new ideas on how to evolve cheaper and more effective educational spaces — just to mention a few.

The new stewardship and the days of the 'Asian Model'. Rahman's sudden death and the ensuing interregnum could have shaken the whole edifice which had just been founded. But UNESCO took prompt action. Just a couple of months before the Second Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning which was scheduled to be held in Bangkok in 1965, a new Director was appointed to the Regional Office. That was Raja Roy Singh, a general administrator turned educator, a firm supporter of educational research and training, but a confirmed non-believer in the prevalent UNESCO-sponsored creed of educational planning.

He was quick to see the fallacies and the deficiencies of the Karachi Plan. But its goal fascinated him nevertheless. Adopting a new approach to the numbers game which was gaining currency in the name of educational planning, he introduced the Asian Model — a computer-based model which spelled out diverse elements in an all-out effort to achieve the Karachi targets, phased realistically according to the capacities of groups of countries.

I was there again as a delegate of my country but with a new Minister. We carried with us copies of Sri Lanka's 1965 plan for educational reforms in the form of a Parliamentary White Paper. Neither the Minister nor I had seen the *Asian Model* until we reached Bangkok as our route was unusually devious — around the world through seven countries — over two months! The document impressed us immensely. The finely worked out equations were nevertheless intriguing. The majority of the participants knew little of mathematical models and much less of the process of experimen-

tation on a computer on the basis of policy alternatives. But all recognized that a new challenge was being posed to educational policy-makers and administrators of Asia. This was the challenge of innovation, the application of modern management techniques and, to use an expression popularized by Philip Coombs of the 'World Educational Crisis' fame, the need to transform education from its semi-handicraft stage to the industrial stage. With little understanding but ample faith, we approved the Asian Model much faster than was scheduled. The remaining time was used for in-depth discussions on a number of major issues facing Asian education at the time.

Here, for our delegation, was a ready-made opportunity to invite attention to our experience in having already come to the verge of attaining the numerical target of the Karachi Plan. We reiterated our concern on quality, emphasized the indispensability of diversifying education with special reference to technical and vocational education and cautioned against indiscriminate pandering to the social demands. We urged that regional co-operation should now proceed beyond primary education and embrace all levels and types of education. Our statement, 'uncontrolled secondary education becomes uncontrollable', was re-echoed with approval by many delegations. Chunks of the Sri Lankan White Paper thus found their way into the Resolutions of the Conference and we dispersed with new friendships and renewed professional contacts.

Once again, UNESCO's vibrant role in Asia generated fresh efforts in the national scene. The activities of the Regional Centres were visibly intensified. The leadership of the Regional Office was more visible. Its bi-annual Bulletin on specially selected topics and its notes on Education in Asia, with invaluable bibliographical information, served as indispensable sources of technical information to national professionals. Sri Lanka had the opportunity of finding a new home for ARISBR when Indonesia left the United Nations temporarily. Helping its establishment happened to be my last association with UNESCO's regional co-operation before I terminated my national career.

Return to UNESCO and back to regional co-operation. In 1968 my association with UNESCO was resumed after a year's break. This time it was in Paris as a staff member in training at the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) — an unforgettable opportunity to gain from the intellectually refreshing contact with

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Philip Coombs, Raymond Poignant, Raymond Lyon and Jacques Hallak, besides meeting some of the 'big names' in educational planning and human resource development like Tin Bergen, F. Harbison, Mark Blaug and (Lord) Vaizey.

Whatever the reason UNESCO had for this year's programme, it had a significant use for me. I had the leisure to reflect and resources to consult in synthesizing theory and inter-country experiences with 12 years of managing a growing educational system of a challenging ethnic, linguistic and cultural situation. The result was 'A functional analysis of educational administration in relation to educational planning, which was published as IIEP's Occasional Paper No. 16 and, to my deep satisfaction, continues to be used and recommended frequently as a training document.

The culmination of this year's sojourn in Paris was the proposal made by philosopher-cum-educational planner Jacques Bousquet, that I be appointed to AIEPA in New Delhi. Despite an initial objection that a Sri Lankan in India could hardly add an international dimension to the Regional Institute, my assignment received final approval.

To join AIEPA during the closing half of its term proved to be challenging. Coming from a national situation with ample experience at the highest level of policy-making and management, fortified with inter-country exchange of information and reflection on theory, I was sceptical about the relevance of the courses imparted to trainees in the light of the problems which Asian Member States were facing. I found a task to accomplish and was grateful that UNESCO could give me this opportunity.

Training the Asian educational administrator. There was a growing disenchantment, around this time, with the kind of educational planning which UNESCO was supposed to advocate. The Regional Director, Raja Roy Singh, as already mentioned, was a persistently vocal critic. The International Conference on Educational Planning in 1968 had raised several general issues on the basic assumptions and techniques. With the ready co-operation which my Indian colleagues extended, a search was made to ascertain what knowledge, skills and attitudes would equip a trainee to perform his or her national functions more effectively. The outcome was a long paper which I later published under the title, *Why second generation educational planning?*

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What surprised us was that the entire problem began with the primary objective of training, which was 'to produce competent backroom boys', who gathered and processed data, applied sophisticated planning techniques and produced technically perfect education plans'. It was assumed that the policy-makers would be thus persuaded to make increasing allocations of public funds to education. My colleagues were highly qualified educational psychologists, teacher-educators, economists and statisticians, none of whom, however, had had the opportunity of administering a sizeable national or even a sub-national educational system. If the realities of political decision-making processes or the complexities of the formulation of the national budget or intricacies of implementing change and innovation received inadequate attention, the reasons were two-fold. Either knowledge and experience in these areas were considered irrelevant to the technical work of a 'backroom boy' or there were none who could convincingly weave them into the training programme in educational planning which had, by then, become a perfect numbers game.

The best illustration of this fact was the practical exercise in operation, called the Garudaland Practical Exercise. If no one made any calculating errors, all would get the same answer at the end. Even the basic emphasis which the Asian Model had placed on experimentation with varying policy alternatives to provide a spectrum of scenarios for the policy-makers to choose from was conspicuously absent in the exercise. With this discovery, began my ten years of commitment to modifying and improving the techniques and methods of training educational planners and administrators in Asia — an effort which ultimately resulted in the seven-volume Basic Training Course in Educational Planning and Management, which continues to be in use in Bangkok.

From planning to planning and management. The first step — which, of course, was the most difficult — was to get all concerned to agree that no national system of education in the region recognized a category of full-time career-long professional educational planners. Economists, statisticians and educators were drawn from time to time for educational planning tasks and, before long, they moved back into their substantive positions to improve their personal career prospects. A four to five year stint as educational planners was already on the high side. The rapid turn-over had an adverse

effect on their receptivity to specialized training and this was evident in the absence of motivation on the part of most trainees.

The content of the five-month training course had hitherto been distributed between planning and administration in the proportion of 90 to 10, as seen from time-allocation. The remedy appeared to be threefold: **First**, to change the emphasis from planning to overall educational management and concentrate on theory and practice relevant to what the trainees would do for the greater part of their career back at home. **Second**, to place the number-work in planning in the proper perspective of the decision-making process, viewed from a systems approach, embracing all elements of the national educational effort. **Third**, to aim at attitudinal change by exposing the trainees to political, social and cultural realities which made a predictable tomorrow a non-existent entity and equipping them to cope with contingencies; real and imagined opposition; and whims and fancies of the powers that be.

By a process of gradual transformation, the content of the course came to be weighted in favour of management (60:40 by 1971). Specialization according to interests was made possible through term papers as well as tutorials on special topics such as Statistics Research methodology, PERT, Work Study, PPBS etc. The Garudaland Practical Exercise was revamped to simulate as closely as possible the multi-faceted operations of a national educational system. The data were presented in seven parts which gave as much emphasis to socio-economic, political and cultural background as to statistics. Simulation and role-playing were adopted as the main techniques of instruction.

The exercise was attempted by the trainees in three groups, each selecting and defending its own assumptions. Each piloted its 'education plan' through a series of simulated consultations and cabinet meetings to a full-fledged parliamentary session. Motivation, spurred on by competition, soared so high that it was often necessary to warn trainees against late nights and overwork. ARISBR, which had always worked in close collaboration with AIEPA, adopted the new technique of training and implemented a Garudaland Practical Exercise in school building development. Equally encouraging were the results achieved in national courses in Nepal, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Malaysia and India and one in the UN Asian Development Institute in Bangkok.

Wider involvement in the Indian educational scene. This exciting work of evolving a methodology for training educational administrators and planners in Asia was further helped by the insights that I gained in assisting in the substantive preparation for a series of regional seminars on such interesting topics as lifelong integrated education, the application of modern management techniques to educational management and the state of the art of educational administration in Asia. Each seminar resulted in a substantial publication and the papers of the third one formed the bulk of one issue of the Bulletin of the Regional Office for Education in Asia. An advanced training course concentrating on education in the year 2000 brought me not only in touch with Ivan Illich of 'Deschooling society' fame but also several key figures behind the Edgar Faure Report, aptly named *Learning to be*.

Another rewarding experience came from a deep involvement with the All-India Association of Christian Higher Education (directed by Father T.A. Mathias). This took me to many educational centres of India where I met some of the most dedicated and enlightened Indian educators, whose modesty and humility as 'trainees' exemplified the age-old tradition of lifelong studentship in oriental cultures. Looking back I find that the stimulating interaction with Indian educators resulted in, not only many public speaking engagements, but also quite a number of published works. It proved to be one of the most prolific periods in my career.

Singapore Conference: The watershed in UNESCO's regional co-operation in Asia. While thus engaged, I was called to Bangkok to work in a team preparing inputs for the working document of the Third Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning, which was to be held in Singapore in 1971. Among the others were Chickermani, the ascetic educational philosopher from India whose insights into problems of education in rural areas were astoundingly refreshing, and Abdul Latif, who subsequently became a colleague as Chief of the Asian Centre of Educational Innovation for Development.

Each of us in the team was developing a paper on an assigned theme and we worked in a large room near the library. Bill Simpson, with his usual sense of humour, had pinned on its door a notice: 'Silence — think tank'. Any thinking we did together or singly was often initiated by Raja Roy Singh with his jolting onslaughts deliver-

ed in his pungently sardonic style. In fact, we were overly concerned with too many sacred cows and his criticisms were invariably devastating: 'Why invent mythical dragons simply for the pleasure of killing them?' 'That's the gospel according to . . . but what does your own experience suggest?' 'You mean a country which pays high salaries to teachers is doing right. What if these teachers are expatriates working in only a handful of city schools, open only to the privileged'. So he would comment on our drafts. After every discussion, we would go back to the drawing board. But the results were rewarding, as we discovered a few months later that our labours had really found way into the working document.

That Regional Conference was a significant watershed in the UNESCO Regional Programme in Asia. The decade preceding it was marked by the intense activities of the Regional Centres which owed their existence to the ingenuity and the interest of Adiseshiah. According to the original terms of agreement with host governments, the centres in New Delhi, Quezon City and Colombo were to give up their regional functions and become national institutions by the end of 1972. Whether to do so or not was a major question posed to Asian educational policy-makers and educators.

Adiseshiah favoured their continuance as institutions tested and found not wanting. But Raja Roy Singh had different ideas. He conceived of an Asian Centre of Educational Innovation for Development — each word in the appellation having an unmistakable appeal to Asian educators. The manner in which the concept was developed and piloted through several forums was a demonstration of Roy Singh's tenacity and negotiating capacity. A Regional Office where a critical mass of interdisciplinary specialists provided a nerve centre to activate the operations in a whole continent with mobile task forces ready on call, resource persons available at the end of a telephone line, and forums for exchange of information and experience, all guaranteeing a perpetual meeting of minds, was indeed, a very attractive promise. Eventually, this proposal prevailed and the Regional Centres withdrew from regional co-operation.

A renewed and reactivated Regional Office. With the new mechanism for regional co-operation strongly recommended by the Regional Conference of Ministers, 1973 began with an enlarged and reactivated Regional Office. The international staff of the Regional Centres found themselves transferred to Bangkok. We constituted

'Services' of the Regional Office, functioning as Mobile Task Forces. Vickery and Sheath developed the Educational Facilities Development Service (EFDS) and Berstecher and I set about forming the Educational Planning and Management Service (EPMS). Paik and Jayasuriya from AITE found themselves in two different services, the latter heading the Population Education Service (PES). The professional staff who were right along in the Regional Office became the core of what was later identified as the Educational Advisory Services.

Giving shape to the newly conceived Asian Centre of Educational Innovation for Development was the major preoccupation of the office. Meetings were frequent. Inter-service consultations were the order of the day. Never had we witnessed a more active period in the Regional Office. Nor had we seen ever before so enthusiastic and dedicated a band of workers zealously planning and bringing into existence a really decentralized UNESCO. Raja Roy Singh was the ideal leader for such an operation. He worked longer and harder than all of us, generating confidence when it was most needed. 'Excellent as usual', he would generously tell us when he saw good work and help us with his mature experience when difficulties were encountered. What we appreciated most was that he was there with us all the time — a general who fought side by side with his soldiers.

The new services were in operation within months and were exploring ways and means of enhancing the contribution that could be made to the region which had all along valued UNESCO initiatives. Our services were being called for and we were constantly on the move. 'You are becoming an itinerant preacher. I must have a computer to keep track of where you are and where you are wanted', Roy Singh told me once during a brief stop-over in Bangkok to check the mail, answer the cables and change the suitcase before taking a flight to another corner of the continent. 'I think so', I replied, 'people are beginning to think of us as missionaries with a gospel to propagate'. It was really so.

We had so much to share with our national colleagues because we constituted a critical mass, representing a rare combination of specializations and skills, actively engaged in discovering new frontiers and offering challenging alternatives for their consideration and approval. We represented the transition between the expatriate

expert of the 1960s who had ready-made answers imported from the industrialized world and the later brand of international staff who studiously avoided offering solutions to specific problems or telling national professionals alternatives to try. Whenever we were in a country, we teamed up with national professionals and worked with them for we were not afraid of soiling our hands.

EFDS and EPMS were very fortunate in that a team of seven or eight of us, with some really good fire-brands in our Associate Experts, combined skills and experiences in several related fields. We worked together closely intensifying in the process a relationship which was already strong when we operated from New Delhi and Colombo. At times, the Population Education Service, too, joined us, specially as Jayasuriya, by training and inclination, was one with us. We undertook joint missions and evolved new packages of training materials which responded to the region's needs. National training courses, where we experimented with a battery of training modalities, was our special forté. Our expressed mission was to persuade Member States to establish national institutions to train educational administrators and school building experts. Three weeks per month in the field became more the rule than the exception. We derived the energy for the demanding tasks while on mission — not to speak of travelling in all forms of transport on all kinds of terrain and living out of suitcases — from the appreciation and the co-operation of the national authorities. We coined the phrase, **The work of the Regional Office is really in the Member States.** Invaluable support was provided by the local staff, specially the efficient and hard-working Thai secretaries — demure, dutiful and dedicated.

It was not always a one-way movement, although it was less expensive and more convenient when we went to Member States and conducted activities involving scores of national professionals of all levels at a time. We also arranged to bring them to Bangkok or to some other central location. As a by-product, we gained so much experience in cross-cultural collaboration and enriching glimpses of the diversity of Asia's culture were an added bonus. We were achieving much more than the goals of the Education Sector through our involvement in promoting the understanding and appreciation of the many cultures of this continent.

To maintain our effectiveness in the field, it was essential that we kept abreast of the developments in our subjects, on one hand,

and the socio-economic, political and educational progress of each of the Member States, on the other. In this regard, too, Raja Roy Singh's resourcefulness and far-sighted organization was magnificent. The Regional Office already had a good library. To make it better was his ceaseless effort. Recommendations for new additions were not only encouraged and compiled with expeditiously but we were given a **carte blanche** to buy any books we thought worthwhile when on mission. An additional baggage allowance was also included. Every new publication or document was read, reviewed and abstracted by a volunteer and the review or abstract found a place in the bi-annual *Education in Asia: Reports, Reviews and Notes*. Nothing could be more rewarding professionally than to review a dozen books for this publication. The motivation came often with Bill Simpson's draconian deadlines. One could also volunteer to bring out the year's Bulletin. In my six years in the Regional Office, I handled three of them – on Educational Planning, Educational Administration and Open Learning Systems. The learning gains of such efforts need hardly to be elaborated.

For all these, substantial resources were needed. But there was never a dearth. Raja Roy Singh looked after that department and the gaining popularity of the programmes helped to raise a fair amount of extra-budgetary resources. Member States sponsored UNDP and UNFPA regional programmes. National projects pocketed out funds for our travel and subsistence quite often. The divisions in headquarters were often relieved when we found ways of utilizing their savings close to the end of each biennium and thus enabled them to report full implementation of their programmes.

These were remarkable days. Our job satisfaction found expression in a vigorous social life. Parties were frequent both at the office and in our homes. Sing-songs and impromptu dances involved everyone with Roy Singh demonstrating his rare skills in 'Bangra a la Panjab'. Some of us could sing popular songs of several Asian countries, to the delight and amusement of visiting nationals. An **esprit de corp** of the highest order prevailed in office and all were engaged in a collective effort which was as profitable as it was stimulating. The Director-General visited us on two occasions and he was most impressed. Explaining the secret of the unique performance of the office, Roy Singh told the Director-General, 'Ours is an integrated office'.

Fourth Regional Conference: emergence of a new Regional Office. As the only professional staff member in the Regional Office to have been associated with all the previous Regional Conferences of Ministers in Asia, I could appreciate the thoroughness with which all preparatory actions for this conference were accomplished. The most carefully worked out operation was the preparation of the Working Document and the ancillary reference and information documents. We were handling a really crowded agenda and the canvas to be covered in these documents was much larger than in any previous meetings. They synthesized the findings of a series of national, inter-country and regional studies and reviews. Above all, the emphasis was in formulating relevant and thought-provoking questions to which the Ministers could address their minds. Implied in them was the need to widen the role of the Regional Office to include levels and types of education hitherto not covered in its work.

The Conference itself went on smoothly, justifying the efforts put into its careful preparation — in substance as well as services. It was both productive and promising. The Director-General's performance as the leading light of the Conference was so impressive that he won the instant admiration of all participants. A fresh outlook on regional co-operation found expression and an enhanced role for the Regional Office was, once again, endorsed with grateful appreciation. As if to symbolize the new trend, Asia and the Pacific had the distinction of blazing a new trail in inventing a co-ordinating mechanism to function in between Regional Conferences.

My own professional involvement in the Regional Conference terminated on its eve. I was relieved from the position of the Secretary to Commission I, to become an Executive Officer to the Director-General.

With the arrival of Akihiro Chiba as Deputy Director and the departure within months of several senior staff members, the Regional Office emerged with new blood both in the form of replacements for some and specialists in fresh fields. Higher education, pre-school education, vocational and technical education, literacy and non-formal education and environment education began to receive the attention of the Regional Office and, responding to the growing needs and challenges of the region, it continued its search for new

modalities of co-operation. With the geographical expansion of the region, Australia, China and New Zealand offered new opportunities.

Watching from headquarters as an interested bystander, there was reason for me to be proud of my erstwhile colleagues as well as the new ones. The best way to demonstrate my grateful appreciation was to apply what I learnt there to the wider theatre which encompassed the whole world. There was much in the Co-operative Programme with UNICEF and WFP over my six year involvement for which the credit goes in one way or another to the creative ambience of the Regional Office.

Just as in the 1970s, the Regional Office, with a renewed vigour, met unhesitatingly the needs of the time, it regenerated itself to face, with equal foresight, the demands of the 1980s. Ratnaïke and Crellin, in addition to the Director himself, formed the bridge between the old and the new. But the Director's tasks had become wider as the Assistant Director-General co-ordinating UNESCO activities in all Sectors in Asia and the Pacific. If **innovation** was the by-word for relevance in the 1970s, literacy and universal primary education have begun to claim supremacy and, true to tradition, the Regional Office is on the way to implementing APPEAL 2000 (Asia-Pacific Programme for Education for All by year 2000).

Conclusion

As I review my 30 year association with UNESCO — of which two-thirds was in Asia — I am conscious of its deep and abiding contribution to my growing up — professionally as well as socially. What I gained from UNESCO — specially ROEAP — is certainly much more than what I gave it.

It has enriched my understanding of humanity and enabled me to sympathize with people who struggle to raise their heads in dignity. It has brought me in contact with some of the most exemplary men of determination and dedication. It has taught me to overcome social and cultural prejudices, to rise above parochial sympathies and loyalties and to respect the views and aspirations of people and peoples.

I have seen an ideal driving people to action. I have witnessed the powers of persuasion which underlie the ethical mission of UNESCO. I have found in UNESCO something worthy of being

safeguarded for the benefit of generations to come. To say it all in one sentence, it has made me a better man, convinced of the oneness of humanity and the richness of cultural diversity. This, I can vouch, would be the firm conviction of everyone who has come under the magic charm of UNESCO.

Sheltering Education

*D.J. Vickery**

Edward Thring, the famous headmaster of an English public school, some 150 years ago, complained that, 'Whatever men may say or think, the almighty wall is, after all, the supreme and final arbiter of schools. I mean no living power can overcome the dead, unfeeling, everlasting pressure of the permanent structure, of the permanent conditions under which work has to be done. . .'

While building is not a main-stream educational activity matching, say, curriculum development, it is clearly important in providing appropriate shelter for teaching and learning. The questions prompted by a dissatisfied Edward Thring and later educators and finally addressed by UNESCO in the early 1960s concerned the sorts of shelter needed in a wide range of natural environments and the ways in which schools could quickly and economically be provided to match the growing enrolments at the first level of education.

Different aspects of the same set of problems were to be found in different regions of the world. In Latin America at the time, there was a strong architectural profession so the need for design guidance was of lower priority than studies of school building planning, school mapping, costing, construction and comparative design. In Asia, on the other hand, there was a great shortage of designers; some countries, indeed, had no schools of architecture at all. While there were a number of notable Asian architects, they were too few for their skills to be made available for the design of the thousands of small schools that were needed.

In this situation, most countries built schools using standard plans which were often quite unsuited by way of design and cost

* Mr. D.J. Vickery was Principal Architect at UNESCO ROEAP until his retirement in 1980

for the rapid expansion of education that was needed. And, not only were there few architects but, worse, there were scarcely any data on which to base the design of schools for new programmes of construction.

UNESCO is not an omniscient organization and, in 1962, the Regional Office itself had to be persuaded that an attempt to produce new standard plans for the countries of the region was, in the absence of data, unlikely to be a fruitful approach. The natural desire for instant answers had to be checked and a lengthy process of research and development commenced: it continues in the Regional Office today, some 24 years after it started and there are newly emerging problems that will require many more years before they are solved.

So, for ten years from 1962, UNESCO supported the Asian Regional Institute for School Building Research (ARISBR). Thereafter the activity was moved to a newly established Educational Facilities Unit in the Regional Office. To the present, the UNESCO contribution to school building development in Asia has included some 90 man years of expert services in school architecture, costing, engineering and documentation. In addition, and of considerable significance, many of the region's national organizations have made inputs through the award of UNESCO-financed contracts in their various fields of specialization. Building research stations, earthquake engineering schools, university departments of physics, engineering and other, related, disciplines, have all combined in efforts to provide the countries of the region with the data needed for the design of functionally efficient and economical shelters for education.

Member States have often neither the resources nor the time to embark on major, school building design-related studies. UNESCO is in the unique position of being able to determine which problems are common to several countries and either to work to provide solutions or to contract studies to regional specialists. Some of the universal problems that have been dealt with in this way include determination of daylight availability for classroom illumination (building physics); furniture design (anthropometrics); sound transmission between open teaching spaces (building physics); accommodation scheduling (computational techniques), and so on.

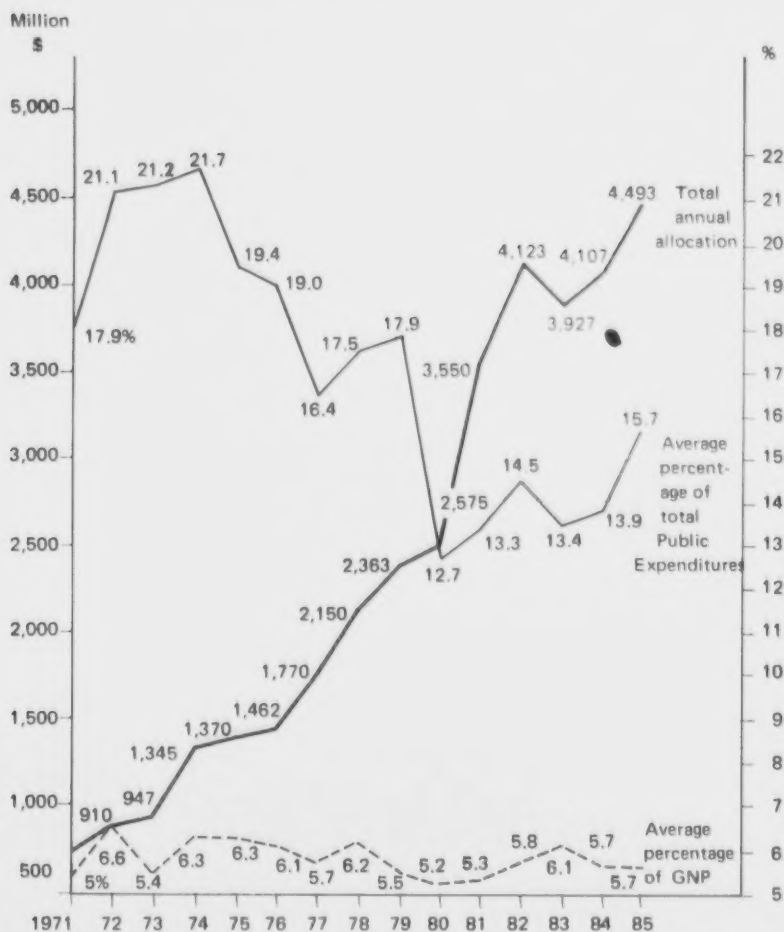
Many of these studies required a great deal of organization — some of it rather overwhelming. The illumination study, for example, was undertaken simultaneously in six countries. It required the dispatch of six identical sets of calibrated equipment from the contractor (The Central Building Research Institute, Roorkee, India) to the university departments undertaking the detailed measurements. At each of the six locations, ranging from the Philippines to Sri Lanka, 13 sets of readings were made at exactly prescribed times daily for 12 months — 4,745 sets in all for **each** station. The problems of ensuring ~~that~~ a responsible technician was on duty exactly on time every day may be imagined. Weddings, funerals, public holidays and the like caused difficulties that overshadowed all but the final computer analysis of the collected data.

Another memorable study concerned a new classroom chair designed by a well-known Danish furniture consultant in ARISBR. Several prototypes of this chair had been made by the ARISBR carpenter — a very highly skilled individual. A distinguished visitor one day suggested the chair was not strong enough. The comment had been made many times before, but this was once too many. The carpenter picked the chair up with one hand and flung it clear across the workshop where it landed in impeccable condition!

Probably the most significant ARISBR activity was, however, that of the study of the detailed arrangements in teaching spaces so that they might better relate to the content and methods of education. To this end, a number of eminent educators worked in the institute on topics such as the design of chemistry laboratories (Alles), home economics laboratories (Gonzalez), biology (Sharma), physics (Yu), vocational workshops (Khan) and there was close co-operation with the Sri Lanka Curriculum Development Centre. The output of these endeavours was in the form of prototype furniture, published studies, seminars, training courses and, eventually, the construction of school buildings incorporating many of the new ideas.

The many major school building studies which the Regional Office publishes from its own print shop are matched by provision for engineers, architects and cost specialists from the countries of the region, to visit and work in the Facilities Unit. Such training has always seemed to be one of the most useful services offered by UNESCO to those concerned with school building. A busy specialist

Figure 2. Total and percentage of financial allocation for the Ministry of Education for the years 1971 to 1985



Source : i) Computed from Anggaran Belanjawan dan Prestasi
 ii) Anggaran Dapatan dan Belanjawan Persekutuan
 iii) Laporan Ekonomi

longer be restricted, nor can educational options be reduced, for there will be increasing pressure from the public to have more courses and educational options available.

There will also be a change in the educational structure and focus. The evolution of Malaysia's education system since colonial times followed the traditional pyramid from bottom-up. By 1970 universal primary schooling was established without the need for legal intervention. However the enrolment rates at upper and tertiary levels are still below the expected level. With this in view, future policy actions would be to increase the provision of places in upper and tertiary levels. The ability to do this will depend on the availability of financial and teaching resources as well as the states' ability to provide employment to its graduates.

It is envisaged there may also be a shift in the focus of education. If in the past, rural education was the central theme of education policy, the future direction or focus could shift to the urban areas. Given the demographic trend of urbanization, industrialization, migration and the change in preference of living, urban education will move to the centre stage of educational policy. No longer will issues of rural-urban dichotomy such as the disparity of educational achievement, inequality of educational opportunities and access to quality education, that had beset rural pupils in the past, be the theme of public educational debate. For with migration and demographic growth of urban dwellers, the urban areas will face mounting problems to provide an effective system of schooling. Given the relentless growing pressure for school space, single-session schools in urban areas will be a dream and not a reality for at least the next 20 years.

The rapid expansion and development during the last three decades has led to a very centralized organizational structure and decision-making process. But lately, there has been public criticism of this extreme centralization of decision-making for it leads to delays, rigidities and stifles new ideas and initiatives at lower echelons as well as in individual schools and classrooms. It is planned to reduce the bureaucratic excesses in the education system by decentralizing some of the management functions to the state and district levels. Within the central framework, it is intended to inject some degree of flexibility, adaptability, and local initiatives for the

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purpose of achieving maximum results in future educational programmes. It is thus anticipated that the future trend would see the emergence of a greater degree of decentralized thinking in education management in Malaysia.

Notes

1. Malaysia is a multi-racial society. The 1980 Population Census reports that the population of the country was estimated at 131,361,000 of which 55.3 per cent were Malays or natives, 33.8 per cent Chinese, 10.2 per cent Indians, and 0.7 per cent others. About 66 per cent of the population dwelled in the rural areas.
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Background

Education for what? was the title given to an Educational Policy Review Committee Report of an inquiry into the system of Education in the British Solomon Islands Protectorate (BSIP), and its recommendation. Except for its scribe, who was an English expatriate, all members of the Educational Policy Review Committee were Solomon Islanders. The Committee members travelled 5,000 miles (8,000 km) over land and sea to canvas opinions of their own Solomon Islands people on the kind of education system they would wish for the future of their children. The Committee held 93 meetings throughout the islands, which were attended by over 8,000 people representing about 5 per cent of the total population and 11 per cent of the adult population. Over 2,000 recommendations from Solomon Islanders were recorded.

A protectorate from 1893, it was not until the 1960s that the first full secondary school became available to Solomon Islanders, and by the 1970s it was hurriedly rushed into independence. Today, in 1986, there are six full secondary schools with a bias towards academic education and university entrance, and a proliferation of area high schools (now numbering about 15) throughout the islands, biased towards practical non-academic, but art-of-living education.

A policy was adopted in which, except for subjects not immediately

ISLAND COUNTRIES ASK, 'EDUCATION FOR WHAT?'



Francis Bugotu

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available at local universities, university studies must first of all be done in an island environment with which the student is familiar. Hence Solomon Island students go to The University of the South Pacific in Suva, Fiji, and the University of Papua New Guinea, Port Moresby, and University of Technology Lae, in Papua New Guinea, for their first degrees, and may go further afield only for second or third degrees or post-graduate studies. Solomon Island students now form the second largest groups in the university campuses of both Papua New Guinea and Fiji.

The general South Pacific scene

This question of relevant education for Pacific island children is a common concern to most, if not all South Pacific island countries. *Education for what?* continues to be meaningful today, and the significance of its findings will become more crucial for island governments in the coming years. It summarized the aims of education in the Solomon Islands. They were to:

- a) Enable each Solomon Islander to understand his environment and the place of the Solomon Islands in the rest of the world;
- b) Enable the Solomon Islander to think and develop his reasoning power so that he may face up to and overcome the every day problems with which he is faced;
- c) Enable Solomon Islanders to become sound citizens of the Protectorate with an understanding and sympathy of the needs of others;
- d) Enable each Solomon Islander to understand his own customs and the customs of others;
- e) Promote racial harmony and unity in the country;
- f) Improve the quality of life in the Solomons; and
- g) Offer skills which will enable each Solomon Islander to play his part in the development of his community and country according to his ability and aptitudes.

The consequences of unquestioned acceptance and adoption of foreign education systems have taken their toll, and serious problems have surfaced in undesirable forms, creating disruptions of island and community society norms and separation and neglect of

traditional family ties. The survival of the genuine island way of life, coined recently as the 'Pacific Way', is being harassed and threatened by new modes of behaviour foreign to the islands.

Well over 50 per cent of the total population of the South Pacific islands are young people under the age of 25 years. Less than half of these have had sufficient education, and employment opportunities for all are very scarce indeed.

Another disturbing trend over the horizon for some time now is that of outward migration of island populations to the cosmopolitan cities in industrialized countries, to the detriment of local populations, economies and life-styles. The drift is mainly to New Zealand, Australia and the United States of America, towards an alien 'bright lights' culture which is born neither from Western civilized norms nor from South Pacific islands village upbringing. Whereas nineteenth century migration in the islands was notably characterized by 'blackbirding'* practices, in more recent times migration both internal and external is caused by a number of expediency factors of economic and social constraints and limitations. Inappropriate education systems must be blamed for perpetuating the trend of modern outward migration. To normalize the drift would require a resolve to eradicate through the education system, the causes of a mental state of mind at the roots — that misguided mentality which seems to stipulate that all good things on this earth are achieved only by getting high marks in a Western prescribed examination based on Western devised curricula, and that Western academic achievement is the key to success in the world.

It is evident that South Pacific island countries are concerned today about these common problems of unemployment, youth disorientation, the decay of native cultural forms and apparent abuse and curtailment of society norms. All are talking of cultural values, and the necessary preservation of national heritage (tabu) sites and revival of native art forms and craft work. Moreover it appears that the more dependent countries who are caught inside the 'dependency syndrome', and moulded under the web of wealthy metropolitan countries, have been affected more than those countries who have opted for independence status. So much so that one territory for example, has in absurdity, requested assistance from outside to 'help

* Kidnapping of men from islands of the Pacific.

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resurrect and revive' its native culture. How is it possible for an outsider to tell one from within that culture, what is wrong with his culture? These are modern-day signs of unfortunate desperation and aberrations amongst Pacific islanders in the disorientation process caused by irrelevant education systems.

The thesis

The thesis, therefore, in this article is that the type and system of education practised in a country reflects and moulds the society in that country. Of course the relationship between education and society is not always clear. In one way, education reflects the values of society and would seek to preserve those values, and in another sense, education would be largely responsible for shaping society itself and for stating the values on which society should be based. Children would be learning from their elders not only about 'correct' society norms of behaviour in their society, but what to aim for in future life for themselves and for their country.

Thus a Pacific island country which desires an American life-style will pursue an American education. A country taught in French as the first language under the French school-system will become French in outlook. A country taught under the British education system to sit a New Zealand School Certificate or University Entrance examination will encourage its children to go and live in New Zealand. Of course the choices belong to us Pacific islanders alone, but once a choice is made, a country or person cannot pretend to aspire to another. It is either one's own culture and life-style with all its ups and downs or another culture and a way of life which moves one away from one's own. Having made a choice one should be true to oneself accepting that knowledge is not a monopoly of one language, or being stereotyped in a system of one nation. The powers of knowledge are equally endowed in all human societies and it is up to us, as Pacific islanders, to cultivate that knowledge whatever our society.

The case of the Solomon Islands

The philosophy of education introduced by *Education for what?* demanded major reorganization and restructuring of the school system in the Solomons, and a shift in curriculum orientation towards more relevant material for schools. Resources needed to be

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centralized and controlled by Government as against the disparity of effort experienced by the former church controlling authorities. The Government became a controlling authority for the first time in 1975.

UNESCO input

As envisaged by *Education for what?* curriculum development was vital and a basic first to any reorientation of an education system. Immediately prior to the setting up of the Educational Policy Review Committee, there was an effort by UNESCO in 1972 to develop primary school science material using local resources. The project was based at the British Solomons Teachers' College. It was undoubtedly an innovative exercise and contributed three volumes of basic science material which were distributed to primary schools throughout the country. Unfortunately this UNESCO project was only for three years. Nevertheless it was a start in the right direction and in line with the thinking highlighted in *Education for what?* It was a pity that UNESCO funding ceased when such an innovative venture in education was just beginning.

Own School Leaving Certificate

In 1978, the year of the country's independence, the 1978 Education Act came into force. The Act, *inter alia*, sought the establishment of a central controlling authority for Curriculum Development activities and what is now known as the Curriculum Development Unit of the Ministry of Education was formed. The same Act in 1978 introduced the country's own School Certificate Examination to replace the English Cambridge Leaving Certificate, making to my knowledge, the Solomons to be the first South Pacific island country to have its own School Leaving Certificate based on its own 'home-made' curriculum.

Because of this need to meet the requirements of a national School Certificate on the one hand, and the revolutionary reorientation in the philosophy of education for relevancy on the other, the Curriculum Development Unit was under pressure to cater for both levels of primary and secondary schools at the same time. This necessitated the recruitment of a full-time Curriculum Development Officer by Government, which enabled the unit to go into full operation by 1980. By 1984 two Curriculum Development Officers

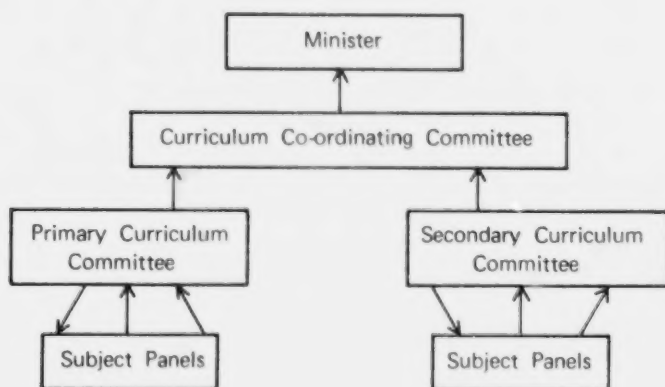
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were at post — a Curriculum Development Officer Primary CDO(P) and a Curriculum Development Officer Secondary CDO(S).

Curriculum Committee system

The CDO(P) and the CDO(S) head the Primary and Secondary Curriculum Committees respectively. The Committees finalize the work of the Subject Panels before they are sent up for final checking by the Curriculum Co-ordinating Committee (CCC) consisting of the Primary and Secondary Curriculum Officers and Ministry officials who finally send the accepted versions to the Minister. The Curriculum Co-ordinating Committee, which was in place also by 1978, monitors and checks the quality and relevance of materials produced. The system of these committees could be diagrammatically represented thus:



Curriculum development

The structure of curriculum development is one which aims at maximum participation by the teachers themselves in the development of their own material, in the writing of syllabuses, teaching materials and examination papers. Hence membership of subject panels includes serving teachers in the field and college lecturers who work together in producing materials in their own respective subject areas. Such materials include teachers' booklets, pupil's workbooks and other curriculum related resources.

Primary curriculum progress

The Ministry of Education decided on a complete review of the Primary Curriculum in 1984 with two basic aims in mind to:

- i) Update the content of the materials in use and the methodologies involved; and
- ii) Provide adequate resources for teachers and pupils.

The review, funded by the World Bank, has a long term aim of expanding primary education in the country. Most of the ground work has been done. Two national workshops have so far been held, one in June 1984 and the other in January 1985. The workshops were attended by multi-level trainers, education officers, college lecturers and subject consultants. The purpose of the workshops was to revise and reconstruct subject syllabuses and to identify possible relevant resources from outside for purchase.

The various subject syllabuses have been completed and resources are beginning to arrive at the centre. However it is felt that the new curriculum should be introduced gradually on a conscious basis, i.e., new materials in each subject are introduced to schools only after teachers have attended a workshop on the use of the materials. The new English language curriculum was introduced to schools at the beginning 1986. Mathematics will be next and eventually all other primary subject areas will be covered. By 1987 it is expected that all schools will be using new materials, at which time all existing materials will become supportive resources for teachers to use appropriately and 'unofficially'.

Secondary schools curriculum

As briefly alluded to at the beginning of this paper, the *Education for what?* report proposed a major expansion in secondary education for the Solomons, with emphasis on Area High Schools (now known as Provincial Secondary Schools) with a practical skill-orientation aimed at catering for the majority of Solomon Islanders, and a carefully planned academic course leading to university studies for the few academically able students in National Secondary Schools.

The curriculum of the National Secondary Schools evolves around the historical pattern of academic training leavened by the

report *Education for What?* The curriculum of the Provincial Secondary Schools on the other hand derives directly from the concept advanced in the report with later subsequent modifications. The basic aim remains; and that is that these schools should cater for the majority of Solomon Island students who will not be able to get university education. This is a realistic assumption in view of the fact that in any given country only about 12 per cent of the school population are able to proceed to universities. Students at the Provincial Secondary Schools will be trained in skills and knowledge which will be useful to them when they return to their villages.

Originally in *Education for What?* the two types of secondary schools had different basic aims, and although their curricula still reflect these distinct basic aims, political pressure has ruled that the contents of the first three years of secondary education should be the same for all secondary school students. Hence in the Forms I - III curriculum, the differences are found in the allocation of time rather than in subjects taught, although the absence of science at the Provincial secondaries and that of practical subjects in the National secondaries is noted, and are in the process of being corrected. The accompanying table shows the average amount of time given to each subject in each type of school in Forms I - III.

The work in Forms IV - V in National Secondary Schools leads to the Solomon Islands School Certificate Examinations. This has four compulsory 'core' subjects: English, mathematics, science and social studies. Students wishing to study science in Form VI must also take an examination in additional science. Students would opt for three other subjects. Because New Testament studies is made compulsory in most schools, students have to choose two others out of agriculture, industrial arts, home economics and business studies.

Solomon Islands College of Higher Education

The Solomon Islands College of Higher Education is the country's newest endeavour and draws once again from the concept in *Education for What?* where it was referred to as the 'College of Education'. It provides a firm base to the manpower skills training aspirations of the country, while at the same time it meets the challenges both practical and academic of students leaving secondary schools; especially those from Provincial secondary schools.

Table. Average time allocations, Solomon Islands
secondary schools Forms 1 - III

Based on 35 x 40 minute periods per week						
Provincial Secondary School				National Secondary Schools Forms I - III		
Subject	Periods per week (40 mins)	Minutes per week	% of total time	Period per week	Minutes per week	% of total time
'Academic' subjects						
Business studies	3	120	8.6	2	80	5.7
Christian Education	2	80	5.7	3	120	8.5
English	6	240	17.1	7	280	20.0
Maths	6	240	17.1	6	240	17.1
Science	0	0	0	6	240	17.1
Social studies	4	160	11.4	5	200	14.3
	21	840	60%	29	1,160	81%
'Practical' subjects						
Agriculture	6	240	17.1	2/3	80/120	5.7/8.5
Industrial Arts (Boys)	5	200	14.3	2/3	80/120	5.7/8.5
Industrial Arts (Girls)	1	40	2.8	0	0	0
Home Economics (Girls)	5	200	14.3	2/3	80/120	5.7/8.5
Home Economics (Boys)	1	40	2.8	0	0	0
Others (Physical Education (PE))						
Creative Arts, Guidance, Music, Art etc.)	2	80	5.7	0/2	80	5.7
	14	560	40%	0	240	17%

Note: This timetable was being modified in June 1985 to include more emphasis on PE and Creative Arts in all schools and on the practical subjects in national schools.

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By 1982 it was clear that in order to develop its resources for the benefit of its people, Solomon Islands must produce more skilled people to efficiently implement and manage the services provided to its fast growing population. Thus with the support of The University of the South Pacific, and at the request of the Government, a report was prepared, recommending that the four existing Government training institutions — the Solomons Teachers College, the Honiara Technical Institute, the Marine Training School, and the Number Nine Nurses Training School be abolished and a single College of Higher Education encompassing all their activities be established. The new College registered its first students in January 1985.

The College is based on a single administrative structure supporting the activities of the six different schools: School of Education and Cultural Studies; School of Industrial Development; School of Finance and Administration; School of Nursing and Paramedical Studies; School of Marine Studies; and School of Natural Resources.

Each school is under the charge of a Head of School and a Board of Studies. To assist it with identifying needs and ensuring the courses are relevant, each school also has various Course Development and Course Advisory Committees which include representatives of organizations in the total economy, active in specific fields and disciplines. The establishment of this College of Higher Education gives credence and stability to the country's aims of providing relevant education in the Solomons by linking schooling with practical life experience for the majority of young Solomon Islanders.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it seems clear that Solomon Islands is one country in the South Pacific at the present time which believes in self-help and wishes to attract its young people to work and live in their own country and preferably in a village environment, which is their traditional home. This calls for encouragement and assistance from concerned international organizations such as UNESCO. In its 40th Anniversary and observance of the International Year of Peace, what better challenge for UNESCO than to help people who want to help themselves to remain themselves. For indeed the essence of true *peace* is the inner peace of mind which man acquires through being *himself*.

The views expressed in this article belong to the author and do not reflect any view of the South Pacific Commission.

Education in Pakistan has received due attention both from the Government and from the public right from the day the State of Pakistan was born on 14 August 1947. There has been a growing popular demand on the part of the public to educate the youth towards the new goal of national identity and ideology and at the same time train them in the fields of science and technology for socio-economic progress. The switch-over to these two new directions could hardly be achieved by the sudden stroke of a pen. Educational programmes had to be restructured on the foundation of the educational system or systems that the British left as a legacy for the new nation. That legacy was partly passed on in the educational institutions created, managed and remodelled from time to time by the British on the pattern of the British system of education.¹ Their primary aim was to introduce the Western model of education without any regard to socio-cultural needs of the local populace. The other part of the legacy was of far greater concern for the solidarity of the people as it was rooted in history and derived its inspiration from Islam. This legacy managed to continue its institutions of *mad-rassah* and *maktab*, to which men of affluence contributed funds and men of learning — *alims* and *mudarris* — volunteered to devote themselves to the propagation of traditional learning and preservation of cultural heritage. In between these two systems flourished many private institutions which tried to combine courses from the above two types but repatterned them in the model of Western education, like the Islamia College at

**EDUCATIONAL
PROGRESS IN
PAKISTAN:
CHALLENGE AND
RESPONSE
(1947 – 1985)**



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Lahore under the patronage of *Anjuman-i-Himayat-i-Islam*, or the Islamia College at Peshawar, or the Sind Madrassah at Karachi.

This legacy of the British time had taken its shape in nearly 200 years of their rule in South Asia but it did not lead to any integrated national system of education. It was only in the post-war period that a comprehensive plan² of education was drawn up. Although the plan could hardly be implemented because of the departure of the British in 1947, it left a new tradition of educational planning. In order to reinvigorate education after Independence successive governments in Pakistan have taken several measures. All such steps have placed education on an evolutionary process and although the aim throughout has been to produce an integrated national educational programme, it has so far not been possible to achieve a uniform system acceptable to one and all, probably because the British concept, that still plays an influential role in Pakistan, has been to impose a system from above while the traditional idea is to retain freedom and individuality of ideas and systems as conceived by teachers and scholars themselves and allow them to float and compete with others in the field. This dual system has not yet found a common ground. However, the process of evolution can be seen in the recommendations made at several conferences that were organized, national commissions that were constituted and educational policies that were formulated over the years.³ This process is presented below from the documents of the following:

1. All-Pakistan Education Conference 1947.⁴
2. Educational Conference 1951.⁵
3. Commission on National Education 1959.⁶
4. Commission on Student Problems and Welfare 1966.⁷
5. Proposals for New Education Policy 1969.⁸
6. The New Education Policy of the Government of Pakistan 1970.⁹
7. The Education Policy 1972 - 80.¹⁰
8. National Education Policy and Implementation Programme 1979.¹¹
9. Action Plan for Educational Development 1983-1988.¹²

All Pakistan Education Conference 1947

The Conference proposed the following major recommendations.¹³

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- i) The education system should be inspired by Islamic ideology;
- ii) Free and compulsory education should be introduced for a period of five years and gradually raised to eight years;
- iii) Primary schools could be coeducational according to local needs; and
- iv) A comprehensive scheme should be prepared for the reorganization of technical education.

The recommendations were limited to Western type education and educational institutions and were not concerned at all with the traditional education. Even in this Western type the emphasis was on technical education and on the need to co-operate with, and get help from, the Western institutions to meet the growing demand by the upper and middle classes of the population for this type of education. On the administrative side, the Central and Provincial governments set up committees of experts to review and revise primary and middle school syllabuses. The Central Government, a co-ordinating agency for developing policies and guiding educational planning throughout the country, set up the Advisory Board of Education, the Inter-University Board and the Council of Technical Education.⁴ One directive principle of education was emphasis on the Islamic conception of universal brotherhood of men, social democracy and social justice. In pursuance of this principle, religious instruction was to be made compulsory for Muslim students in schools.

Educational Conference 1951

For effecting a quantitative and qualitative improvement of education to meet the growing socio-economic needs of the country, it was felt necessary to devise a comprehensive scheme of education so as to integrate it in the six-year development programme of Pakistan (1951-1957). For this purpose a Conference of Provincial Ministers and Secretaries of Education, Vice-Chancellors and Directors of Public Instruction was convened to determine the basis for a National Plan of Educational Development. This led to a joint conference of the Advisory Board of Education, the Inter-University Board and the Council of Technical Education in December 1951. Again the subjects covered were those which related to their respective fields with emphasis on age limits of various levels of education,

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diversification of courses at the secondary stage, and greater need for technical, agricultural and commercial education. One great result of these discussions was the adoption of the Six-Year National Plan of Educational Development (1955-1960), which was for the first time integrated with the general development plan of the country. As a result, the training of teachers was raised to an adequate standard, the staff position at different levels was improved, and facilities were provided for research in educational psychology, methods of teaching and curricula. At the same time more funds were made available for equipment, laboratories and buildings.

Commission on National Education 1959

The Conferences on Education, so far convened, led to an improvement of the quality of teaching and an increase in the number of institutions so as to produce more trained personnel for meeting the socio-economic needs of the country. But no drastic change was made in the system of education as left behind by the British. The result was slow progress. In order to infuse some new life, the Revolutionary Government of President Ayub Khan constituted a Commission on National Education in 1959 with the following functions to:

- i) Examine the role of education in the community and suggest measures which may enable the Universities, Colleges and Schools to fulfil this role effectively;
- ii) Consider whether educational institutions in Pakistan are adequately equipped with men and materials to produce (a) the scientific and technical personnel required for the development of the country; and (b) the right type of personnel required for the Civil and Defence Services as well as for the professions and the public life and suggest measures for overcoming these deficiencies;
- iii) Examine the standards of teaching and research in educational institutions and suggest necessary measures to raise them to the highest possible level; and
- iv) Examine the financial needs of educational institutions and suggest appropriate means for providing for them needs consistent with the resources of the country.

For the first time it was recognized that education is a vital national investment, a productive activity essential for the development and progress of a nation. As the Revolutionary Government had set its task to rebuild the country and nation on a sound footing of progressive development, education received great attention to produce men of ability who could man different fields with an eye on development. The whole emphasis was on finding talent, diversifying the training, and producing men of wide vision capable of adding their own to the development of the country. In order to achieve this end following measures were adopted:

At the primary and secondary levels a thorough revision of curricula was undertaken at the Central Government's initiative with the objective to establish uniform standards throughout the country. The purpose of the Primary School curriculum was to develop fundamental skills through artwork, crafts, manual labour and out-of-school activities. In the Secondary Schools the curriculum provided for a core of compulsory subjects, which included science and mathematics, and a wide range of elective subjects including courses of a technical and vocational nature. However, Islamic studies and religious education were not neglected. It was made compulsory for classes I-VIII and optional in later years. For the first time *madrasahs* and *maktabs* received some attention in-so-far as the Provincial Auqaf Departments initiated a programme for their development.

A number of public schools were opened, which were residential in character. They offered diversified courses of study with all facilities to produce men of character and leadership. Teacher training institutes and Education Extension Centres. Summer courses for training and several pilot schools of standard were brought into existence. Special emphasis was given to teaching agriculture and technical education. For the first time two agricultural colleges were raised to the status of universities. Similarly two Engineering Colleges were raised to the status of universities. The directorate of technical education was established and a number of polytechnics came into existence. The result was an increase in the skilled labour.

For the advancement of science, Research Councils, like the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research, Atomic Energy Council, Agricultural Research Council, Medical Research Council and National Science Council were established on an autonomous and semi-autonomous basis.

Measures were also proposed to remodel university education. First of all Intermediate Education was separated from the universities and it was brought within the purview of Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education. Degree courses in the universities were diversified into Honours and simple graduate syllabuses and the proposal was made to increase the duration from two to three years although this last proposal was later reversed. More facilities were given for post-graduate courses with the aim of establishing M. Phil. and Ph. D. degrees. In order to achieve high standards in the post-graduate courses two centralized universities were recommended with the sole aim of producing teachers, men of ability, who could provide leadership in the country. As a result, the University of Islamabad (renamed as Quaid-i-Azam University in 1976) came into existence. At the higher level of education, seminars, symposia and conferences in different disciplines were encouraged so that there could be a common platform for discussion among teachers from different universities.

There were also new experiments made in the field of examinations, tests and tutorials so as to discover talents and help them by guidance to develop their latent capabilities in the aptitudes of their choice. The old model of examination was sought to be diversified and the attempt was made to go beyond the rote system of tests and widen the scope of judgement by giving more freedom to internal teachers.

The education plan, as conceived now, and implemented in the successive Five Year Plans of the country, was oriented towards self sufficiency in manpower skilled in technical knowledge so as to match any other country. The standard of the Western countries, particularly of the United States of America was kept as a guiding principle. Keeping intact good points of the British system of education, the plan managed to swing over towards the American system in adopting diversified courses in schools, in laying emphasis on scientific and technical training programmes, and in setting a standard of perfection for Higher Education quite in line with doctoral programmes of the American universities. The scale of measurement was provided by top education as the standard of general social life was motivated by amenities and mechanical advance so easily made available by the returning trained personnel

coming home from American schooling. Highest priority was therefore given to university education, training in the higher skills of a scientific and technical nature, scientific research with a view to achieving self-sufficiency in agricultural output and commodity production. Both the goals and expectations were very high but as the minimum industrial and technological base was lacking, real achievement was far less. In order to meet this deficiency the lower level courses were revised. Polytechnics were opened, training programmes were developed, and the number of skilled personnel vastly increased. But there was a gap between the polytechnic that emphasized practical skills, and the scientific and engineering education that relied on theories based on the technology of the West. The result was an increasing gap between the lower level of education and the higher level that could hardly be bridged in the system provided for. This growing divergence led to a great social malady as seen in the late 1960s in Pakistan. The emphasis on uniformity in development left many areas untouched and as a result there was great imbalance in the developmental process as experienced in the different regions of Pakistan. The same was true in the field of education.

New courses like social studies, sociology, anthropology, mathematical economics, business administration, public administration and educational psychology, became more and more popular. Courses in management, social work and social services received great attention. Similarly in the engineering field new courses included chemical and mining engineering, metallurgy, mineralogy, ceramics, petroleum and particularly those which dealt with the exploitation of local resources. At the same time designing, town planning and architecture became popular. On the agricultural side, higher education included animal husbandry, agricultural economics, agricultural engineering, rural sociology and basic sciences. In the field sciences emphasis was laid on experimental physics, high energy physical laboratories, geophysics, technology, genetics and earth sciences. For the first time persons specialized in different fields were available in Pakistan.

Commission on student problems and welfare 1966

The centralization of education, in consequence of the policy as envisaged in the plan of 1959, led to uniformity of courses, uniform control of the institutions and promulgation of university

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ordinances. This direction from the top was the cause of resentment on the part of the students and teachers, particularly those who were socially and economically affected. Very soon unemployment of the educated and trained personnel raised difficult problems. The switch-over to the new system added fuel to the fire. Hence the Commission on Student Problems and Welfare was set up in 1966 to find solution to growing unrest in the education circle. Their terms of reference were to:

- i) Examine the provisions of the University Ordinances and suggest modifications wherever necessary;
- ii) Take stock of existing facilities for a sound programme of studies and to suggest remedial measures commensurate with available resources;
- iii) Determine the adequacy, or otherwise, of the recreational and welfare facilities of students and suggest ways and means of providing them within available resources; and
- iv) Examine any other matter affecting student life.

The recommendations of the Commission were remedial rather than affecting any changes in the plan proposed earlier. However, the remedial measures resulted in endorsing the reversal of the changes made in the duration of the degree courses and of the examination system. At the same time some improved facilities were suggested both for the teachers and students so that an atmosphere of peace conducive to studies might develop. One net result was the formation of Student Guidance Counsels in different universities. In the light of the Commission's recommendations the Third Five-Year Plan (1965-1970) included a nine-point objective for educational development.

Although the original facilities, as envisaged in the above plan, could not be met with because of the Indo-Pakistani War of 1965, yet there was an all round development in the field of secondary and higher education. The target in primary education could not be achieved. On the whole, educational progress could not cope with social malaise. The general mass rose up to find a better solution.

Proposals for New Education Policy 1969

Towards the close of the 1960s the first era of educational planning was over. So far the emphasis had been on 'modern'

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education and a massive shift towards scientific and technical education of the selected few to develop skilled manpower in the country that could take the country upward towards the goal of economic progress in line with the Western countries of the world. In this goal the need for national cohesion on the basis of all round development of the different areas and different classes was overlooked. This resulted in the imbalanced growth of the country. No national consensus on education could develop in all classes of the society. Similarly in spite of some attention to Islamic teaching, nothing had so far been done to evaluate the madrassah education that had been producing literate men to man the mosques and maktabas and thus exerting considerable influence on the masses. To rectify these deficiencies new proposals were formulated in July 1969.

In this formulation there was a clear perception of two systems of education: the first, which was developed by the British, was described as 'modern', and the second, which was developed by the Muslims, was termed 'classical'. The first was characterized as to prepare the youth for Government service, predominantly in the clerical cadres and was not oriented to the political, social or economic needs of an independent developing nation. The second was said to be emphasizing the rote learning and Arabic language . . . in the hope that it would save and preserve the Islamic cultural values from the inroads of alien influences. Remote as these madrassahs are from the trends of secular education, they have also been found wanting in serving the needs of Pakistan.

It was observed that in particular the educational system has been unable to break down the barriers between:

- a) Those who follow the stream of religious schools and those who are taught in modern schools;
- b) Those who use the English language in their normal day-to-day business and those who do not; and
- c) Those who are born in well-to-do families and those who are not.

Therefore the proposal suggested a gradual integration of the two systems:

Pakistan must aim at ideological unity and not ideological vacuum. It must aim at providing a uniform and integrated system of education which seeks to

impart a common set of cultural values based on the precepts of Islam. Islamiyat, in its broadest sense, must be made a compulsory subject up to Class X and optional thereafter. It is also necessary to accord a high priority to Islamic research in the universities and to progressively incorporate the results of such research into the normal curricula of our faculties of law, politics, economics, and other social sciences. In the meantime, the teaching of mathematics and science subjects should be introduced in 'madrassahs' and special programmes should be undertaken to train their existing teachers to teach such modern subjects. Simultaneously equivalence should be established between the various stages of 'madrassah' education and those of 'modern' education, so that the products of madrassahs can obtain all those jobs which, at present, are available only to those who have had modern education.

A selective approach was also recommended in the adult literacy programme. To solve the issue of the educated unemployed it was realized that at the secondary level of education, no more than 4 per cent of the total enrolment is in vocational and technical classes, and even those enrolled in general classes prepare to enter college rather than active life. A massive shift towards vocationally and technically oriented education at the secondary stage is therefore essential.

The New Education Policy 1970

On the basis of the above proposals New Education Policy was promulgated in March 1970. The main features are:

Restatement of basic principles and concepts of education emphasized the importance of Islamic values, educational programmes to cater for economic needs, education as an instrument for social change and development, quality improvement in education and decentralization of educational administration.

Recommendations included eight-years of elementary education and as a complement to it, a programme for adult education; at the secondary level a shift to scientific, technical and vocational education; at the higher education level a 50:50 ratio between the

arts and sciences was set as the goal; for research purposes centres of excellence were to be established, and a scheme for a University Grants Commission was accepted.

Proposals were also made for the improvement of Madrassah education. Concrete steps included the setting up of committees in the provinces to:

- a) Suggest how the curricula and the courses of studies in Madrassahs should be revised with a view to (i) establishing and equivalence between the courses offered in Madrassahs and in institutions of general education, and (ii) enabling their products to be assimilated in the economic life of the nation; and
- b) Examine the question of strengthening the organizational set-up and giving a statutory status to the Madrassah Education Board of East Pakistan and the development of institutional arrangements for the same purpose for the provinces of West Pakistan.

It is important to note that the Fourth Five-Year Plan (1970-1975) also set a high target for enrolment at different levels.

The Education Policy 1972-1980

In consequence of the political change in 1971-1972 the valuable proposals made in 1970 could not be fully implemented. The political change necessitated consolidation of the country and the nation and adoption of an educational policy with full participation of the people. For the first time the old accepted concept of universalization of education was given a proper shape and equalization of opportunities in education found due expression in the various measures adopted. But the most important step was equalizing the status and emoluments of teachers at all levels with other members of civil bureaucracy. For the first time the cleavage between government officials and teachers, that had started in the British time, was broken and all services were brought under the same measure of status and emoluments. However, as there were a large number of private educational institutions that had different standards and scales, the Government decided to nationalize these institutions and bring them on an equal footing with the Government managed institutions. But by far the greatest change was in the system of

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management. For the first time both teachers and students found their due representation in the managerial bodies. A system of democratic management was introduced in the administrative structure of educational institutions. The only exception was the madrasah education where the *status-quo* was to be maintained in respect of institutions imparting exclusively religious instruction such as maktabas, madrassahs and dar-ul-ulooms etc., run by Muslims and similar institutions run by any other religious denomination.

Within these broad principles the recommendations were:

Education will be made free and universal up to Class X. In the first phase, from 1 October 1972, education up to Class VIII will be made free, and in the second phase, from 1 October 1974, free education will be extended to Classes IX and X.

In the secondary and intermediate education the new programme provided for progressive integration of general and technical education. An integrated science course, including mathematics, biological and physical sciences, was introduced at the high and intermediate stages. Special education for handicapped children was also proposed.

For higher education qualitative improvement was recommended. Besides opening new universities, it was proposed to provide for 100,000 additional places in institutions of higher education by 1980. Proposal was made for Area Study Centres and Pakistan Study Centres. In order to achieve a major shift towards science and technology it was recommended to have a progressive integration of general, scientific and technical education at degree level. For the first time a national professorship was created so that highly qualified scholars and scientists might continue as teachers and research workers.

With respect to technical education it was proposed to convert polytechnics into technical colleges. The new areas to be added were: electronics and instrument technology; textile, cotton and wool technology; para-medical technology; leather technology; mineral technology; printing and graphic technology; timber technology; oceanography and marine engineering; aeronautics; plastic and rubber technology; gas and petroleum technology; arts and fine arts; ceramics and glass technology; architecture; and development economics.

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For adult and continuing education a massive literacy programme was proposed by opening literacy centres all over the country and by extensive use of non-conventional methods. It was also propose to establish an Open University to provide part-time educational facilities through mass media.

The following new institutions were established: (a) National and Provincial Education Councils; (b) University Grants Commission; (c) National Book Foundation; (d) National Sports Trust; (e) Pakistan Council of Arts; (f) Institute of Folk Heritage; (g) Bureau of Educational Planning and Management; (h) Academy of Letters; and (i) National Commission for Historical and Cultural Research.

This educational policy envisaged a massive programme for universalizing education, for integrating arts and sciences as well as technical training into a general scheme of education, for raising educational services to the rank and status on par with other services and for democratizing the system of management in educational institutions. An attempt was made to bring education to the individual's doorstep and to raise the status of the teacher in the eyes of the common man. But while education was sought to be universalized, the value of education could not be improved in a popular concept. The quality of education could hardly improve as there was a scramble for position and status on the part of the teachers. Gradually bureaucratic mannerism invaded teaching cadres. Universalization demanded huge expenditure and so the educational burden on the national economy was too heavy to sustain. The process of educational evolution on a greater scale was certainly commendable but it could not remain commensurate with the economic growth of the country. Hence many of the programmes, like nationalization of education and free education had to be reversed in due course.

National education policy and implementation programme 1979

In order to make education meaningful to the national and ideological needs of the country a new policy statement was made in 1978. It was made after a Conference of 1977. The new policy was more comprehensive than before as it sought to utilize all the available means to popularize education, conventional and non-conventional; expand the scope of education, formal and non-formal; popularize science and technical education in school and college levels by making easily available science experimental kits; continue

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the education process even after the end of formal education by utilizing mosque and mohalla institutions, expand the scope of general education in secondary and intermediate education by integrating Classes IX and X with Classes XI and XII, widen the perspective of higher education in the colleges and universities by strengthening the Centres of Excellence and giving more facilities to selected Departmental Centres and at the same time encouraging post-graduate research programmes by providing scholarships and fellowships.

The great stress was laid on national aims of education. The primary aim was to foster in students a loyalty to Islam, a sense of a dutiful citizen of the Pakistani nation as a part of universal *umma* with full knowledge of Pakistan movement, its ideological implications based on the precepts of *Qur'an* and *Sunnah*. Simultaneously the aim anticipated improvement in quality education, inculcation of functional literacy and fundamental education to all citizens, equipping them with vocational and technical education so that they prove to be a valuable asset for socio-economic growth of the country.

Elaborate measures were proposed for imparting primary education to increased numbers of boys and girls, for recognizing mosque and mohalla schools and utilizing them for literacy programmes, for inducting village workshop schools for the continuation of reading habits, for giving special attention to female education and the education of the handicapped and for encouraging general education by allowing private schools, colleges and even universities, and finally for a massive programme for literacy.

Education on the whole was viewed as a three tier system: elementary (I-VIII), secondary (IX-XII) and university education. In the secondary education curriculum, mathematics was made compulsory for all science students and terms like 'medical' and 'non-medical' groups were abolished.

In the National Education Conference of 1977 the first recommendation was: "The universities may be federally funded through University Grants Commission with the existing system of administration and supervision remaining intact". This change also led to the modification of University Acts. Accordingly a new ordinance has been promulgated to streamline discipline among teachers and

students. By this promulgation the old method of democratizing university administration has been reversed.

Another important feature of this policy was an assessment of the madrassah education. It was observed that at present these institutions exist under the names of maktabas, madrassahs, dar-ul-ulooms and jamias. Maktabas are preliminary level institutions teaching *Hifz* and the *Nazra Quran*. No statistics are available for such Maktabas. The terms madrassah, dar-ul-uloom and jamia are used more or less as synonymous for institutions which are engaged in teaching *Dars-e-Nizami* in its original or modified form. The curriculum includes the *Quran, Tafsir, Hadith* and *Figh* with some elements of logic and philosophy. Later a Commission under the chairmanship of Dr. A.J. Halipota was appointed to make recommendations about them. The work of the survey is still going on even after the submission of Halipota's Report. A questionnaire¹⁵ has been circulated and a provisional list¹⁶ of such madrassahs was prepared in 1984. The corrected list up to February 1986 places the total at 2,261: (i) *Nazrah* equivalent to primary level, numbering 159; (ii) *Hifz-i-Tajwid wa Qir'at*, equivalent to Class IX numbering 698; (iii) *Tahtani*, first two years equivalent to High School and next two years equivalent to Intermediate, numbering 581; (iv) *Mauquf alaih* equivalent to B.A. degree, numbering 407; and (v) *Daura-i-Hadith* equivalent to M.A., numbering 416. All these institutions issue certificates and diplomas.¹⁷

Today the Government of Pakistan allocates about 10 per cent of Zakat fund to dar-ul-ulooms. There are six institutions of this kind in Karachi which have started Ph.D. level programmes.

Mention must also be made of Jami Islamia at Bahawalpur that was established on modern university concept to integrate Islamic education with modern education. Finally the Islamic University at Islamabad has been established to integrate Islamic Research Institute with the Faculty of Shariah and the addition of the Institute of Islamic Economics and Dawa Faculty with the ultimate aim to develop Islamic education to the highest level in co-operation with international teachers.

On the educational progress in Pakistan, the remark of Dr. Parveen Shahid is worth pondering on:

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A number of efforts have been made since the Independence of the country to effect reforms. . . but the state of affairs, it is needless to stress, remained the same. This is due to the fact that our system is not able to respond appropriately to the challenges posed for the present and the future by advances in scientific and technical fields. Further our system is not capable of translating the plan and policies in action.

This failure has led to the formulation of the Action Plan¹⁸ so as to fit the education policy within the development scheme of the country.

The above sad conclusion is not necessary if the country's ambitious expectations could be moderated. In fact education in Pakistan has made steady progress, at least in quantitative terms, in that the number of educational institutions have considerable increased. The courses in schools and colleges have been modernized and technical and vocational education has now taken an institutional character. The emphasis on universalization of education has been increasing in the time of the later governments. But so far the twin system of education, 'modern' and 'classical' has not yet been integrated. Education has certainly been rooted in the national ideology of Pakistan. A modern Pakistani youth has a better vision of the world than a comaprable youth of the older generation because of the better facilities of educational media like radio, television, magazines and newspapers.

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In 1986 UNESCO celebrates its 40-year Anniversary and the Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific its 25-year Anniversary. Everybody will agree that since its beginning the Office has made remarkable progress due to the dedicated efforts of the Directors and staff, as well as due to the positive co-operation of Member States in the region. During the past 25 years, educational standards have risen in all countries in Asia and the Pacific, and educational co-operation among countries in the region has intensified year after year. In particular, the joint efforts taken to develop the Karachi Plan and the Asian Model in the early 1960s and the noteworthy results of the APEID projects since the early 1970s are worthy of mention.

Though there may be distinct differences in educational development among countries, quite a few educational problems and issues are shared. These are, for example, the integration of general and vocational education; how to link education with employment/work; how to utilize television and radio programmes or new information technology in education; and how to promote adult education and lifelong learning. These are general problems, common in nature to every country regardless of the pattern of educational development. There are similarities too in the ways countries set out to discover solutions to the problems. It is on such matters that there exists a big role for UNESCO to play in promoting co-operation and exchange of information among Member States.

Needless to say, the educational system of individual countries reflects the

EDUCATIONAL REFORM IN JAPAN



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unique social systems and culture of each country, and no one believes that educational systems can be transplanted from one country to another. But there can be similar viewpoints and ways of examining common problems and issues, and exchange of information will greatly benefit the countries concerned. It is in this spirit that the following comments about some aspects of educational reform in Japan are offered.

What is the difference between educational reform and educational development? In my observation, it reflects a different way of evaluating the same phenomenon. Education in any country develops with the currents of the time. When it shows rapid development and the changes in direction are distinct, the term 'educational reform' may be used. In other words, one may say that reform implies an intention to seek development, and development is the outcome of the intention. It may not necessarily mean that reform is always accompanied by radical changes of direction. When education is not stagnant but in the state of development, one may say that education is in the process of constant reform. Consequently, this paper will describe the educational development of Japan when referring to educational reform in Japan.

Modern school education in Japan is usually said to have been launched by Gakusei or a Government Order of Education issued in 1872. This does not imply that school appeared instantly out of nowhere. Educational facilities for the children of commoners existed since the fifteenth or sixteenth centuries. During the Edo Period, from the seventeenth century, Clan's schools for the children of warriors and Terakoyas or commoners' schools became popular. The literacy ratio among commoners was pretty high in the Edo Period. As a result of such educational provisions in the society, the public school system was established. Educational undertakings during the Edo Period were extensively private provisions and the educational reform of the early Meiji Period which began in 1868 created a public, national educational system. It is a significant characteristic of educational reform in the Meiji Period that the public education system was developed on the sound foundations of education provided by the private sector during the Edo Period.

The Meiji Government began with the universalization of national basic education and the training of national leaders at higher educational institutions. It intended to expand the school system

gradually, but the master plan was of a grand scale. Originally it was intended to divide the whole country into eight university regions, to set 32 middle school districts within one university region, and to establish 210 primary school areas within each middle school district. One primary school area should establish one primary school, and in total there should be 53,760 primary schools throughout the country. Under this grand blueprint of the Government, 28,000 primary schools, 600 middle schools, 100 normal schools, two higher normal schools and one university were established within a few years.

One can see that the Government was firmly determined to build the nation by means of an educational undertaking. Though it is said that there were already more than 50,000 Terakoyas or institutions for primary learning for commoners during the Edo Period, the establishment of more than 50,000 primary schools was not an easy task for a newly developing nation. The Government permitted local authorities to levy for education, to collect tuition fees and donations. People also made huge efforts and collaborated with government policies.

In planning and implementing this educational development plan at the beginning of the Meiji Period, the Government acted on its own judgement while it sent senior staff abroad for research purposes and sought advice from foreign consultants. Textbooks of foreign countries were translated and used as part of the instructional materials, and the individual instruction methods practiced at Terakoyas were transformed into class instruction methods. This was essentially a trial and error approach which lasted for several years. Establishment of the unified school system was completed by 1890. The need to then establish a powerful organ to deliberate on basic guidelines for further development of school education emerged and in 1896 a Supreme Council on Education was established as an advisory organ to the Minister of Education.

This agency was the first to formulate the planning of educational policies in Japan. It was modelled after the French *Conseil superieur de l'Instruction publique*. All educational laws and regulations were sent to the Supreme Council on Education for perusal. The Middle School Order, a Vocational School Order, a Girls' High School Order, a College Order, a Library Order and others were developed during these years. In this way, the system of secondary

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education was developed during the period from the end of nineteenth to the early twentieth century. Elementary education became free in 1900 and compulsory education was extended from four years to six years in 1908.

It took 40 years from the inception of Japan's modern school education system to completely install the systems of elementary, secondary and higher education. Once established they were immediately expanded. In 1917 a Special Council on Education was created in the Cabinet as an advisory organ to the Prime Minister. The Council examined all educational areas from elementary to higher education including the degree granting system and social education. Within two years of its existence, the Special Council recommended further measures for expansion.

The Council's recommendations were warmly welcomed by the Government and carried out. The Law concerning the National Treasury's Share of City, Town and Village Compulsory Education Expenses (1918) provided for the national government to share the personnel expenditure for compulsory education with municipal authorities. Various types of schools at secondary level were established and expanded. It was an epoch-making period for higher education which was rapidly strengthened and expanded by the newly promulgated University Order and Higher School Order. Up until this order, universities had been established only by the national government. Afterwards local governments and the private sector were allowed to establish universities. Specialized college universities were brought into existence. Quantitative development of higher schools was made. In order to implement the recommendations of this Special Council, the Government established several other councils. The measures submitted by this Special Council on Education established the basic frame for educational development until the period of post-war reform of Japan. The various measures implemented were designed to further promote the educational development attained since the inauguration of the school education system in Meiji Period.

A Council on Education created in 1937 in the Cabinet aimed at educational reform to meet war-time needs and it recommended extension of compulsory education to eight years, consolidation of secondary schools, and the upgrading of normal schools to college

status. But because of the war, the extension of compulsory education was suspended.

Loss of the war in 1945 forced Japan to face radical educational reform, implemented under the control of the Allied Forces. A Japan Educational Reform Committee (JERC) was established in the Cabinet to make suggestions for the Cabinet to implement. The suggestions of JERC were always under the supervision of the Allied Forces; and this was an educational reform under special conditions. Members of JERC paid particular attention to developing reform guidelines so that a reformed education would assist in reconstructing the nation as an independent, democratic and peace-loving country. Their efforts led to reform measures that met the realities of Japanese society and formed the basis of today's development. Japan was lucky in that sense.

Educational reform after the war covered all fields of education, both school and social education. The basic principles, to change the thoughts and life styles of the people by means of educational reform and to contribute to the construction of sound foundations for new Japan, were the same as those of the reform that the Meiji Government executed 100 years before. The scope and significance of reform in the post-war period was comparable to that of the Meiji Period. The Meiji reform came to be regarded as the first reform, and that of the post-war period as the second one. Educational reform being planned today on the basis of the post-war attainments is now being called the third reform of education in Japan.

The term 'Third Educational Reform' was first used by Dr. T. Morito, President of the Central Council on Education, an advisory organ to the Minister of Education which recommended 'Basic Guidelines for the Reform of Education' in 1971. Dr. Morito referred to a third educational reform in comparing the characteristics of the report with the previous educational reforms. It is also widely thought that the deliberations of the National Council on Education Reform created in the Cabinet in 1984 are aimed at launching a third educational reform.

In order to explain current deliberations on the reform of education, it may be necessary to clarify some points of the significance and development of the second educational reform. The

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second educational reform was framed by several basic laws such as the Constitution, the Fundamental Law of Education, the School Education Law, and others. There were two basic categories of change: reform in educational aims and objectives, and reform of the educational system.

With regard to the basic aims and objectives of education, the reform guaranteed the right of people to receive education on the basic principle of freedom and equality expressed in the World Declaration of Human Rights. The specifics included the respect for the parental rights for education, respect for the people's will for educational administration and respect for the local autonomy. It was a quite reverse characteristic of the first reform which aimed at education for the nation. Education which aimed to train people, changed to an education which aims at 'completion of personality development'. It was a shift in objectives from education under the control of the state to education by local autonomy, autonomy of private institutions and university autonomy.

The reform of education after the war introduced the 6-3-3-4 system, extended compulsory education to nine years, and produced a co-educational system amongst other changes. The real significance of the new 6-3-3 system was to simplify secondary education which was formerly more complicated. By this reform, an ideal 'Secondary Education for All' was realized within quite a short period of time and consequently, higher education rapidly became more popular. Today, the enrolment ratio to upper secondary school is more than 94 per cent and the proceeding ratio to universities has reached 37 per cent. These changes in the education system, in fact, can be seen as part of the continuous development of education since the first reform. There was no real break in pattern, in contrast to the changes made in educational principles. Extension of compulsory education; simplification of the secondary education system and expansion of higher education — these continued to be issues of education from the first reform. The second educational reform was successful in the area of the educational system, building on the patterns of the past.

On the contrary, the reform in educational principles was a radical change in thoughts and there was a break between the two. Though laws and systems can easily be changed, the ways of thinking do not alter so quickly. Thus there was a discrepancy between the

principles and the actual operation of systems. Local autonomy of the boards of education and autonomy of private institutions and universities did not materialize as stipulated in the laws and regulations which framed the system.

It must be admitted however, that the second educational reform contributed enormously to the reconstruction and development of the nation, in particular by achieving universalization of secondary education and increasing the enrolment for higher education. Supported by the economic and social development of the society, education also enjoyed its full development. In consequence, the question could be raised whether the second educational reform was quite satisfactory or not.

On a comparative basis, in quantitative terms the educational development of Japan has produced educational standards that are quite high. In the such matters as the degree of universalization of education, enrolment ratios at various levels, the standard of equipment and facilities, the qualifications of school teachers and their salary scales, the literacy ratio in the population, the average levels of scholastic achievement in mathematics and natural sciences; Japan is seen by scholars in other countries with feelings of envy, and many wonder why there is so much talk about the need for educational reform. Some advise that if Japan introduces freer systems of teaching content and methods, it may face the problem of lower educational achievement levels. We should be modest enough to listen to such advice, and take care not to allow the educational standards so far achieved to deteriorate.

Education should not be viewed in isolation from its social environment of the time, but examined always in relation to the growth in the economy and social and cultural changes. In 1967 the Minister of Education asked the Central Council on Education to review the progress of education for the 20 years after the second educational reform and consider prospects for the years ahead. This resulted in the recommendations presented to the Minister in 1971. Unlike the first and second educational reforms, the review of that time was not due to the external factor of political changes of the nation but it was with a view to adjusting educational systems to the internal changes of the society.

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As the enrolment ratio became higher and almost all young people proceeded to upper secondary schools, the educational content and instructional methods of upper secondary schools could not remain unchanged. When higher education became more popular than the secondary education of 20 or 30 years before, it was a matter of course that a demand for diversification of higher education should emerge and policies to improve the quality of higher education called for. It was a time of technological innovation and rapid industrialization, urbanization and internationalization in social areas. The Central Council on Education in 1971 recommended measures to adjust education to such social developments. The changes suggested were not fully implemented, though some improvements such as the upgrading of teacher's salary scales, changes in the university entrance examination, and establishment of new universities and research institutions were gradually made.

Since then there have been radical changes in the international situations, economically and politically, and many rapid changes in social and family life due to technological innovations and progress in information technologies. As a consequence, the educational world has been exposed to various new problems and faces important new demands.

One request came from industrial circles, and others emerged as problems within the world of education. Industry strongly demanded that education produce manpower full of creativity and high ability in international activities so that it may better survive in international competition and handle international conflicts which threaten Japan. From this standpoint, industry demanded that education should improve upon the stereotyped instruction and the entrance examination and stress the respect for individuality. At the same time, the number of children who cannot adjust to the changes in school and family life has increased. Growing school and home violence, and other juvenile delinquencies have come to the attention of the public.

Does education today somehow contain defects within itself? Is it possible for educators to improve the situation by themselves? Such fears expressed by the general public led to the establishment of the National Council on Education Reform within the Cabinet in 1984. This Council was asked to prepare a prescription for educational reform within three years. These are the reasons that today

loud voices calling for the need and the means of educational reform are raised in Japan.

The National Council on Education Reform has so far submitted two reports to the Prime Minister. The reports stress the principle of respect for individuality, and suggest all aspects of education be reviewed and transferred to a lifelong education system. In addition, the National Council wants to recover educational ability of family life, to reform elementary and secondary education, to reform higher education, to promote scientific studies, to revitalize social education activities, to take measures to meet internationalization of the society, and to take corresponding measures for an information technology-based society. Furthermore, the reports indicate a desire to improve the authorization system in educational administration, to promote decentralization of educational administration, and to improve school management amongst other things. There is no space for detailed description of the changes proposed. It is expected that more important recommendations will come from the Council later and it is not appropriate to foresee the contents of future proposals.

Rather, the characteristics of the current educational reform in comparison with previous reforms will be discussed. The latest educational reform is still being deliberated while the first and second reforms have already materialized. It is not yet clear how recent proposals will be implemented. So far, various government advisory councils have made a very large number of suggestions and recommendations and not all of them were necessarily implemented. It does not imply however, that the deliberations of the National Council have not been fruitful. The publication of the process of deliberation itself has strong relevance to, and is an important characteristic of, the current educational reform.

The first and second reforms were caused by exterior political factors and executed through positive measures of the Government. The third reform is to improve co-ordination between education on the one hand, and the economy and society which form the educational environment on the other. The cause is internal itself. The facts which necessitate current reform cannot be solved by orders of central government or simply by reform of the system. The educational issues involved on how to treat children who cannot adjust to their family and school life, or how to make children develop

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creativity, cannot be tackled without the conscious and concerted efforts of parents, teachers, other people in the community and at work, and above all without the positive efforts of the individual children concerned. To solve such problems will require the efforts of everyone in society. In this sense, widespread publication of the deliberations of the National Council on Education Reform has big relevance for educational reform.

The first and second reforms were to develop the society and to build the nation by means of education. There were attempts to lead the society by education and to a fair extent they were successful. The third reform involves an education which is far behind changes in the nation and society and calls for education to catch up with the societal changes. The relationship between education and society is the reverse of what it was in the two previous periods of reform.

There may be a view that education should always lead the society. Basically education is to transmit the existing culture, that is, education is an undertaking to transfer the product of one society to the next generation. Education is supported and influenced by the cultural and social environments that were produced by human beings in the past. It could be said that the educational reforms in the past were successful because of the attainment of previous generations. Thus, education has to select what should be transmitted and what should be developed among the attainments of previous generations. The new generation thus educated becomes the initiator of the social development to build a new culture for the society. The next generation will be affected by that culture and grow. This will be the matured relationship between education and society.

From this view, we may conclude that the third educational reform is a movement to make people deeply consider what is the true nature of education and to realize its original mission.

(Translated by Toshio Kanaya)

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Although wider issues are undoubtedly involved, three key challenges need to be addressed successfully if the Australian education system is to be successfully shaped to meet the needs of the nation and its people in the twenty-first century.

First, major changes in scope and opportunity of employment for youth have implications for the restructuring of senior secondary schooling. In Australia as in other post-industrial world economies, fewer workers are able to produce far more at far less cost. Even if growth in advanced technology jobs does not have a major long-term impact on employment growth, in the short term, technological change is having a major impact on many occupations through the electronic office and banking, computer assisted design and manufacture, robotics and flexible manufacturing systems. These changes make it plain that new and especially young entrants to the workforce can no longer be assured of a place.

Second, it is essential that within the education system, both at secondary and post-school levels, education policies and programmes continue to be developed which include full opportunities for migrants, Aborigines, the handicapped, girls and other disadvantaged groups. To be successful, these programmes need to continue to provide to such groups a more equitable share of opportunities for education and, through those opportunities, improved life chances.

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- * This paper was prepared by Professor McKinnon in collaboration with Dr. A.P. Gallagher, Director, Reviews, Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission.

**RESHAPING
AUSTRALIAN EDUCATION FOR THE
TWENTY-FIRST
CENTURY**

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Third, education continues to face its traditional, central challenge of preparing youth for an uncertain future, now an increasingly difficult to anticipate future. To avoid obsolescence, schools and other education institutions must seek to provide appropriate curricula and educational delivery methods which meet this need. In the discussion of the Australian education system, which follows, the problems of relating the school system to the economy, of providing secondary education for all and of preparing for the future, have central place.

Outline of Australian education

In Australia, State Governments have been traditionally assigned major responsibility for formal education, especially the administration and substantial funding of primary, secondary and technical and further education. A diagram describing the structure of the general education system in Australia is appended to this article.

The Governments of the six States and the Northern Territory administer their own systems of education through government departments responsible to Ministers. The Federal (or Commonwealth) Government, through the Australian Capital Territory Schools Authority, organizes similar education services in that Territory. Throughout Australia 3,006, 169 primary and secondary students and 1,202,425 tertiary students are involved. The tertiary figures include university, advanced education and technical and further education (TAFE) students. (Refer to Table 3 for more details. Most TAFE students are part-time)".

Details of the total education budget for 1984-1985 and earlier years are set out in Table 1 at the end of this article. Overall public expenditure on education in 1984-1985 stabilized in real terms; as a proportion of gross domestic product it remained at 5.7 per cent in 1980-1981 and 5.7 per cent in 1984-1985. In round figures, some 62 per cent of public outlay on education in 1984-1985 was allocated to schools, 20 per cent to universities and colleges of advanced education and 10 per cent to technical and further education. Education funding for other purposes such as school-to-work transition, pre-school student assistance and administration accounted for 8 per cent of total outlays.

Thus, while the States have constitutional responsibility for the provision of educational services, the federal government provides the full cost of tertiary institutions and partial grants for school level education; government systems receive 32 per cent of their capital costs and 9 per cent of recurrent costs whereas non-government schools receive, on average, more than a third of recurrent and about a quarter of capital costs from the Federal Government. The Australian Constitution does not confer on the Commonwealth Parliament responsibilities and powers in the field of education excepting the power given by a constitutional amendment to grant benefits to students. Section 96 allows the Commonwealth to make grants to a State on such terms and conditions as the Parliament thinks fit. Hence the Commonwealth Government has national responsibility for direct financial assistance to students and for supplementing educational provisions; it also maintains a national perspective and is responsible for Australian involvement in international education. Much initiative for educational change, nevertheless, remains very much with the States.

Educational developments 1970-1985

Up to the mid 1970s education, whether at school or post-school level, was concerned with the problems and effects of a growing and increasingly heterogeneous population of 12 million people, in circumstances of sustained economic development and rising affluence.

It was accepted by governments in Australia that the availability of a better and more equal standard of education for all was a means of achieving greater social equity and that a clear linkage existed between economic growth and improvements in participation in post-secondary education. As the Commonwealth Government holds greater fiscal power than the States, pressure for improvements in education led to a greater provision by the Commonwealth Government of financial assistance to both government and non-government schools and to universities, colleges of advanced education and technical colleges in the States. In 1974, under a Labour Government which increased the flow of Commonwealth funds to education, the Federal Government assumed total financial responsibility for funding universities and colleges of advanced education. To advise and to administer the flow of funds, the Federal Government created

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the Commonwealth Schools Commission in 1973 and separate authorities for universities, colleges of advanced education and the technical colleges. These tertiary authorities were combined to form the Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission in 1977.

In mid 1975 a new set of circumstances had begun to influence education. Economic recession and rising unemployment led to much more conservative social, political and economic values and attitudes. With major restructuring of the labour force, especially a shrinking manufacturing sector, and unemployment rising even further, particularly among young people, the question of school-to-work transition became a major concern of education policy. Fresh approaches became necessary to break down the persistent pattern whereby educational outcomes depended to an unacceptable extent on young people's socio-economic background, gender and geographic location. Moreover, it became increasingly apparent that Australia required higher levels of general educational achievement and curricula which took into account the new technologies.

Australian schools in the mid-1980s

In 1986 Commonwealth and State governments will spend more than \$8,000 million on Australian schools. This represents a very substantial real increase per student on the levels that prevailed over a decade ago. This financial improvement has led to such tangible changes as smaller class sizes, broader school curricula, better and more widely available facilities, improved salaries and conditions for teachers and administrators and the extension of education services to groups with special needs for whom provision was previously virtually unavailable.

These are substantial achievements, often unrecognized in the ongoing debate about resources and the quality and direction of education in Australia.

Historically, the administration of State education has been based on the belief that equality of opportunity for all children over wide geographic areas would be best achieved through central control and unified procedures within each State. State centralized systems continue to be justified in terms of their greater competence, both financially and in other ways, to deal with a widely scattered population, particularly in rural areas. Measures taken to equalize opportunity for rural children are among the most publicized features of

education at home and abroad and some of these are the most genuinely creative of our policies.

In recent years there has been the beginning of decentralization of educational administration and greater sensitivity towards the relative social and economic disadvantage experienced by certain groups, including the following:

- a) A greater delegation of authority for decision-making to the regional level in all States;
- b) School inspectors and superintendents emphasize less their role as evaluators of schools and teachers and concentrate more on being advisers;
- c) School-based assessment is now much more prominent, although public examinations at the end of secondary schooling continue to be important in some States (Victoria, New South Wales and Western Australia). This change has led to making the marking systems more open, more intelligible and therefore more challengeable;
- d) Although State Education Departments continue to set the framework and rationale for curriculum content, schools are now taking much more responsibility for details; and
- e) Local community participation in education is being actively encouraged.

Equality of opportunity. An important theme in educational development at the schools level in the past decade has been the importance of equality of opportunity. This has been a meritocratic view which assumed that equal conditions of schooling, would enable the more able members of any group in society to gain access to positions of economic advantage and power through their personal ability and effort.

On the basis of this principle, the Schools Commission in 1974 recommended a system of differential grants intended to upgrade the resources of our schools in both the Government and non-Government schools systems which fell below a standard determined in relation to a computed average for State schools in 1973. Additional funds were recommended to schools serving areas identified on a number of criteria as being clearly socio-economically disadvantaged.

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Since its establishment, the Schools Commission has successfully broadened the notion of equality of opportunity to encompass diversity in opportunity from one school to another, particularly as a corollary of its arguments for the devolution of decision-making. The success in promoting both equality and yet diversity in Australian schools marks an extraordinary departure from the hostile attitude to diversity in education that had prevailed since the beginning of the State systems. The Commission has also acted as a stimulator of discussion and review of most of the main features of school-level education through papers and initiatives which have re-examined the functions of policy.

Meanwhile the State systems which have long interpreted equality of opportunity as equality of treatment have developed more sensitive and supportive policies, especially for those disadvantaged through socio-political factors.

Priorities in reshaping schools

Of the forces changing the face of Australian schools, three are of greatest influence; the effect of integration of knowledge on reconstructing curricula, the pace of change in information technology and the shrinking of traditional employment opportunities for youth.

Curricula. On completion of their secondary schooling, today's young adults proceed into a world markedly different from that which confronted their parents when they left secondary school. Because of a continuous change in the deployment of production and resources, and in the shape and role of the family unit, future patterns of demand, production and the means of pursuing well-being cannot, in free societies, be predicted or planned. Thus every part of the school curriculum, irrespective of level or subject, needs to be informed by an awareness of what makes the post-industrial society the way it is. Schools have to rise to the challenge of creating appropriate curricula.

One important curriculum change which has yet fully to occur concerns the integration of the content of such subjects as the sciences, technology and economics. Because considerable familiarity with new scientific, economic and technological developments is now expected of all citizens, the curricula in these particular subjects

must be kept up to date. All students may need to be introduced to some common areas before they can be said to have satisfactory completed a general education.

Technology. The challenge to prepare students to know enough about the existing world is exacerbated by the information revolution. No consensus exists concerning the nature of the skills that will be required, nor is there agreement as to how to facilitate personal development and increase the quality of life in a rapidly changing society. Although technology cannot alone guarantee that more is learnt, or that learning is better, changes in technology provide the most significant challenge to institutional provisions for education since the establishment of public education a century ago.

The education system, generally, continues to be in a reactive phase regarding technology. As a system it continues to be pushed and pulled, without a clear idea of the future, in its response to technological development. For instance, computerization and telematics make the location of education activity less relevant; information provision can be initiated from a distance from a different city or continent, but the implications for education are still unclear. The information revolution also raises basic issues about education and human society that the Australian education systems have only begun to address.

As a result of the informatics revolution, governments in Australia have a heightened expectation that education at all levels will make a positive contribution to industry modernization and national productivity. By 1981 the information labour force accounted for 30-56 per cent of the workforce in countries such as United States of America, Japan, West Germany, United Kingdom, Sweden, Denmark, Finland, New Zealand and Australia. This growth was very largely unexpected, unplanned for and certainly not the result of long-term labour force planning or market projections.

The OECD examiner's review of Australia's Science and Technology policies (1985) implied that similar, although more moderate, growth and employment could continue provided there were significant developments in information technology and other technological fields, together with major social change to education institutions and decision-making processes.

Youth transition from school to work. Shrinking employment opportunities for youth during the past decade continue to have a major effect on reshaping secondary schooling. Sharp increases in percentage unemployment of the 15-19 age group from just under 6 per cent in August 1974 to 15 per cent in February 1975 and then to 21 per cent in February 1978 have occurred at a time when the percentage unemployment among the whole labour force rose from just over 2.4 per cent to a peak of 7.4 per cent in February 1978. The corresponding figures for February 1986 are 22.5 per cent for unemployment among the 15-19 age group and 8.9 per cent for the whole labour force. Youth unemployment has therefore continued to remain very high in relation to the labour force and will continue to do so. Although the problem is masked by greater school participation rates, the likelihood remains that more education will be an insufficient remedy.

The incidence of long-term unemployment for youth has been the impetus for Commonwealth and State Governments to develop strategies at the interface of senior schooling and employment. Within education in 1983 the Commonwealth established the Participation and Equity Programme (PEP) which aims to increase participation in education, particularly by the most educationally disadvantaged groups and to introduce greater equity in providing education. To complement this, the Commonwealth Government also provides means-tested allowances to encourage young people to remain at school until the end of secondary school. During 1986 the Federal Government allocated more than \$A 41 million* to the schools and tertiary sectors for the PEP programme. This money is used for such worthwhile purposes as evaluating teaching materials for 'marginal students' and developing programmes to increase the participation of women in science, technology and management-based courses.

Other recent reports have assisted governments in Australia to devise policies which would improve the transition paths for young people moving from school to work. The Kirby Report (1985) led to the introduction of a new federal youth traineeship programme. It is hoped by government that the traineeships, combined with continually expanding full-time education opportunities, will lead to the elimination of the bulk of youth unemployment by the early

* Approximately 1.65 Australian dollars = One US dollar.

1990s. The indications of this change so far are that between 1981 and 1984 the final year of secondary school retention rates rose from 35 to 45 per cent of the age group. In addition, in 1983 and 1984 unemployment in the 15-24 year old group fell by 76,000 whilst in the same age group participation in full-time secondary education rose by 56,000.

The Quality of Education Review Committee (QERC) Report (1985) also tackled the wider questions of purpose and quality of schooling and recommended action in four priority areas:

- a) Improved outcomes from primary education, including junior primary, as the foundation for future learning;
- b) Raising participation in senior secondary schooling by disadvantaged groups;
- c) Improving representation of girls across all subject areas; and
- d) Helping teachers bring about the necessary improvements.

In 1986 the Commonwealth Government accepted the major recommendations of the QERC Committee and negotiated resource agreements with State Governments and non-government school authorities to improve educational outcomes.

The transformation in retention rates has resulted in two new challenges and a longer term problem of maintaining quality. The first is that the 1983-1986 post-secondary expansion occurred with limited increases in funding so tertiary education is now jammed tight with students and facing deteriorating academic and instructional conditions.

The second challenge is one of measuring internal institutional effectiveness. The QERC report concerned itself with educational outcomes rather than inputs and with measuring value for money from education spending, particularly in terms of gearing the education system more closely to labour market needs. It still remains unclear, however, how schools can relate and set their patterns of management and education delivery in terms of recognizable and accepted outcomes.

The looming long-term problem concerns ways of maintaining the quality of the teaching force. Traditionally, better than average

young male graduates have entered professions other than teaching in greater numbers; such opportunities are now more open than ever before to better young women graduates who have traditionally entered teaching. Wider opportunities for young women imply fewer talented women will be attracted to the teaching force with consequent adverse effects on the overall quality of the teaching profession.

Tertiary education in the mid-1980s

Tertiary education refers to what is described in many other countries as higher education. The Commonwealth has full financial responsibility for universities and colleges and shares responsibility for TAFE colleges with the States. In 1983-1984 State governments spent around \$862 million on TAFE and the Commonwealth \$205 million. The Commonwealth administers tertiary education through the Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission which was created in 1977 from three separate Commissions concerned with the Technical and Further Education Colleges of advanced education and university sectors. Generally, within the States, statutory and advisory bodies advise State Education Ministers on policies and priorities and implement government decisions within tertiary education. With a few minor exceptions all institutions in the three sectors are public institutions dependent on government funds. Tuition fees for Australian students were abolished in 1974.

The university sector is the oldest and strongest, and certainly has the most prestige. There are universities which operate under State Acts of Parliament which confer responsibility for government on a Council or Senate. The Commonwealth government finances universities through 'general recurrent', 'special research' and 'equipment' block grants and specific grants for buildings. Most universities are located in capital cities and enrol almost 170,000 students, of whom 60 per cent are studying full time. Most students (80 per cent) are enrolled at undergraduate level but, in relation to other tertiary education institutions, universities have a special role in research and post-graduate study.

The advanced education sector was created in the mid-1960s to provide courses at an advanced but non-university level. Colleges in this sector, except in Federal territories, were established under

State legislation, are co-ordinated by State agencies and are responsible to State Ministers for Education. Entry to colleges is less restricted than entry to similar university courses though more restricted than entry to TAFE courses. The 44 CAEs (the number of separate colleges has been halved over the past three years as a result of forced institutional amalgamations) are more dispersed geographically than universities and less homogeneous in character. Only 46 per cent of CAE students are studying full time.

The TAFE sector offers a variety of vocational and non-vocational courses in a network of approximately 450 colleges and almost 800 annexes or branches. The largest enrolments are in trades and apprenticeship courses, other skills courses, preparatory and remedial work, and leisure and adult education. The administration of a TAFE system within the states rests with separate government departments or boards in three states and with state education departments in the others. Only 10 per cent of the more than 830,000 students enrolled in TAFE are studying full time.

Table 3 at the end of this article provides statistics on the numbers of students in each sector of tertiary education and the overall growth of each sector.

In the last 25 years Australia's tertiary education system has undergone many changes. Australian universities and colleges of advanced education have experienced growth and then decline; fragmentation followed by consolidation; shortages of some students and graduates followed by over-supply; student and staff unrest followed by quiescence. Government, at State and Commonwealth level, exercised a high degree of influence over the direction of the tertiary education provision; government-appointed committees and commissions not only advised on financial requirements, but also supervised a range of activities out of a need to co-ordinate the system. Over this time there have been various shifts in control, principally from States to the Commonwealth. In the college sector, there has been some relaxation in the degree of external supervision but they are so bound by co-ordinating bodies that their freedom to act is very limited.

There is a complex interplay between institutions, Governments (State and Commonwealth) and Commissions. Even within

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that, there are forces at work, for example between the Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission and its three constituent advisory councils, representing the interests of the three sectors. At the State level, the powers vary, State to State; and within a State, between the three sectors. For example, in Victoria the Victorian Post-Secondary Education Commission as the co-ordinating authority has some powers with respect to universities; very considerable powers over the colleges; and powers shared with the Victorian TAFE Board for technical and further education.

A number of points can be made in favour of the current Australian arrangements:

- a) A procedure for triennial reviews and funding, applying equally to universities and colleges, assists them to look ahead with confidence and enables governments to establish an overall programme of support;
- b) The ordering of State and Commonwealth Commissions and advisory bodies permits a degree of integrated planning and the setting of explicit programmes for each of the three sectors; and
- c) In the advanced education sector the colleges have obtained a capability to make their own decisions about appointments, budgeting and academic procedures; in this they enjoy an autonomy like that available to universities.

Against this there are a number of causes for dissatisfaction:

- a) The so-called benefits of autonomy are more imagined than real, given the boundaries to college and university decision-making which have been erected by statutory agencies;
- b) The Commission and co-ordinating bodies have a weak record in relating their employment plans to manpower requirements and in developing coherent statements about the appropriate numbers of places to be made available in higher education;
- c) There has been insufficient investigation of, or support for, new forms of academic and course organization, for changes to the systems of academic government in use in

the colleges, and for the study of methods and criteria used in selection and assessment;

- d) There has been insufficient incentive within the system for students with a TAFE background to pursue further study at universities or colleges; and
- e) The system of control has resulted in a tripartite regime which is far too strictly conceived and applied; one most obvious and serious disadvantage of this is that the separation of Institutes of Technology from universities, by its presence and rhetoric, is a continual denigration of applied knowledge.

Defining the role of tertiary education in a new age

From 1976 to 1983, after an earlier period of unprecedented expansion of well-being in Australian higher education, the Commonwealth education budget remained static and tertiary education suffered real cuts. CAE's were forced to amalgamate, university and college building ground to a halt and libraries and research equipment were further run down. Although funding has increased in real terms, pressures on maintaining quality have been exacerbated by increases in demand well above the supply of tertiary places.

Four issues need to be addressed and more effective solutions found if tertiary education is to continue to be an effective system. First, as was indicated in the previous section, relationships between the institutional composition of the three sectors need to be rethought. Second, better and more extensive access to higher education needs to be provided. Third, academic career opportunities, particularly for women need to be reassessed as does the question of tenure. Fourth, the effect of privatization on the integrity and quality of tertiary education institutions needs to be assessed.

Access to higher education. Much of the Australian public appears to be still conditioned to the view that tertiary education is for a small privileged elite. It is not so commonly believed that tertiary education ought to be a national necessity for a substantial proportion of the population. Universities and colleges continue to be dominated by student populations drawn from relatively wealthy and high status backgrounds.

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Attainment of greater equality of opportunity through equalizing access to tertiary education remains a major goal of the Federal Government.

1. A smaller proportion of our population gains access to higher education, especially compared with Japan and the United States of America;
2. A higher proportion of non-government school students than government school students gain access, particularly to professional faculties such as medicine, law and dentistry;
3. A higher proportion of metropolitan than rural students gain access;
4. The success rate and participation of Aborigines remains abysmally low; Aborigines comprise 1 per cent of the nation's population and only 0.5 per cent of the university and CAE students population (however if full-time TAFE students are added, Aboriginal participation becomes 4.5 per cent for all sectors); and
5. Although the participation rates of women and men are almost equal, young women still do not enter non-traditional science and technology areas in large numbers.

Furthermore, access will become more difficult, at least for much of the next decade. Arithmetic on population trends and assumptions about the rate of transfer of secondary students to tertiary, reveals a great increase in demand for tertiary education. The proportion of older students (over 23 years old) is increasing rapidly and may well increase further. By 1990 it is estimated that more than 70,000 additional places will be needed and that universities and colleges will need to increase their capacity by yearly one-third to cope. In the longer term, due to a demographic decline in younger population groups, the pressure for enrolments could ease.

Career structures in higher education. Tightening of funds has cut down the number of young entrants to academic careers at a time when the senior positions are still blocked by those who have some years to serve. At the same time the women's rights movement has focused attention on the widespread practise of unfair discrimination based on sex and on the social arrangements that

systematically favour male predominance. This has led to pressure for affirmative action to improve the proportion of minority staff and, particularly, women employed in tertiary institutions. The Commonwealth Government's affirmative action legislation has led to programmes of reform being progressively adopted by tertiary institutions since 1983.

Pressures on staffing and on institutional autonomy make it safe to predict that by the end of the century the present profile of staffing and staff conditions in tertiary institutions will be markedly different from that existing today.

Tertiary education — public or private. In the mid-1980s, Commonwealth and State governments alike promote a view of education as a commodity and accept many of the free market and privatization proposals in circulation. A clear example of this is the current debate over reintroduction of tuition fees for tertiary education. The implications of policies such as the reintroduction of fees on access for students have been insufficiently debated. As well, the possible regressive consequences of adapting the tertiary education system to a market-based system which would benefit consumers and producers with the greatest economic and social power, has been insufficiently debated.

Tertiary institutions continue to be encouraged by government to earn export income through the marketing of higher education, particularly to neighbouring countries in Southeast Asia. As a result of two reports in 1984 (the Jackson and Goldring Reports) the Federal Government is increasing its overseas student charge to 45 per cent of the full cost of a place during 1986 and 1987. Overseas students unable to be accommodated within Government subsidized aid programmes can seek entry at full cost. The provision of such opportunities is currently a very fluid policy area with tertiary institutions largely inexperienced in market education jostling and competing for a share. It remains to be seen how privatization will affect tertiary institutions in the long run, particularly if private or semi-private campuses are established in Australia for overseas students. For its part, the Federal government hopes these encouragements will reduce the almost total financial reliance of tertiary institutions on Canberra.

Summary

Compared to many of the countries in the Asia/Pacific region, Australia would still be seen to have the problem of other affluent nations in plotting the future of its education system. It has had universal primary and secondary education for a long time, and thus, in terms of access, focuses most attention on encouraging young people to complete the secondary education cycle, especially those from disadvantaged groups and minorities. It is exploring with changes in upper secondary education structures, curricula and accreditation arrangements in order to foster universal completion of secondary education, which, if achieved, would diminish the unacceptably high levels of youth unemployment currently prevailing.

The twin economic shocks of sharp reverses in the terms of trade in primary commodities together with the increased technological competitiveness of other countries, has forced Australia to re-think its expectations of the education system at all levels. In consequence, much attention is now being given to reshaping primary and secondary curricula in ways which will prepare young people better for economic life; at the tertiary level also, reconsideration of the balance between general and vocational education is leading to much public debate.

The normal uncertainty about the future has been heightened and there is now real anxiety about whether Australia's education system is as well focused as it ought to be. Australians are more conscious of being economically vulnerable than they have been for many years and, as a result, are looking to the changes and developments which need to be introduced to the education system to minimize the problems. The attitude is that while no country has been able to avoid such problems, complacent countries may suffer more than is strictly necessary. Australia is therefore one country in the region in which there is considerable public debate about reshaping education to meet the needs of the twenty-first century, and in which a range of initiatives is being taken at several levels to make substantial adjustments to current educational services.

Diagramm of The General Education System

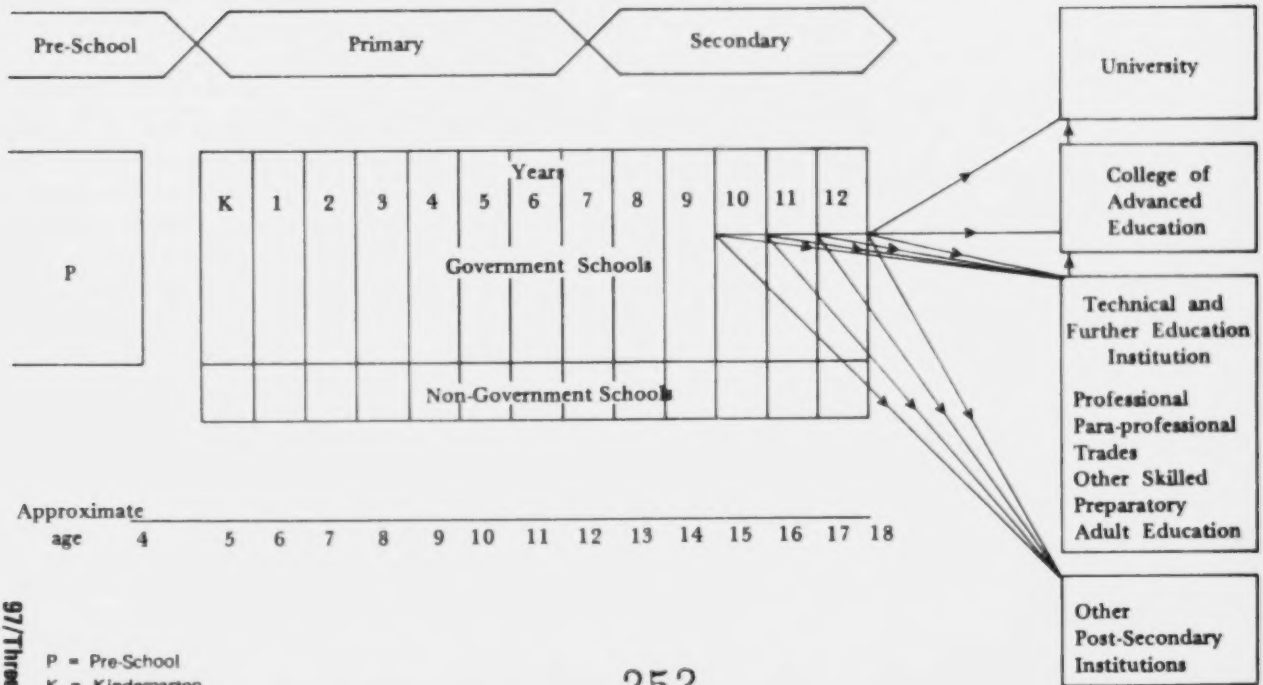


Table 1. Government outlay on education in relation to Gross Domestic Product,
Australia, 1980/81 to 1984/85

(Dollars in million)

	1980/81	1981/82	1982/83	1983/84	1984/85	Per cent
Primary and secondary education	4,743	5,327	6,056	6,754	7,348	62
University education	954	1,093	1,198	1,296	1,418	12
Other higher education	708	733	808	881	958	8
Technical and further education	641	817	950	1,058	1,216	10
Tertiary education neo	18	14	17	26	60	—
Pre-school education and education not definable by level	295	351	401	460	490	4
Transportation of students	224	249	287	324	350	3
Education neo	103	130	119	108	108	1
Total government outlay on education	7,691	8,714	9,837	10,907	11,938	100
Gross Domestic Product (GDP)	135,183	152,756	167,534	189,257	209,776	
Total government outlay as per cent of GDP	5.7	5.7	5.9	5.8	5.7	

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics

Table 2. Primary and secondary enrolments in Australian schools, 1977-1985

Year	Government	Proportion of total per cent	Non- Government	Proportion of total per cent	Total
Primary					
1977	1,502,901	80.8	356,089	19.2	1,858,990
1978	1,517,189	80.8	360,061	19.2	1,877,250
1979	1,517,341	80.5	367,412	19.5	1,884,753
1980	1,508,039	80.0	376,055	20.0	1,884,094
1981	1,485,043	79.4	386,020	20.6	1,871,063
1982	1,454,881	78.7	394,086	21.3	1,848,967
1983	1,410,788	78.0	398,247	22.0	1,809,035
1984	1,358,909	77.1	402,990	22.9	1,761,899
1985	1,317,865	76.4	406,458	23.6	1,724,323
Secondary					
1977	846,409	75.6	273,752	24.4	1,120,161
1978	837,233	75.1	278,137	24.9	1,115,370
1979	819,377	74.3	282,801	25.7	1,102,178
1980	810,038	73.6	290,430	26.4	1,100,468
1981	813,552	72.9	301,976	27.1	1,115,528
1982	828,084	72.3	317,596	27.7	1,145,680
1983	870,234	72.1	336,537	27.9	1,206,771
1984	901,642	71.8	354,179	28.2	1,255,821
1985	912,968	71.2	368,878	28.8	1,281,846
All schools					
1977	2,349,310	78.9	629,841	21.1	2,979,151
1978	2,354,422	78.7	638,206	21.3	2,992,628
1979	2,336,718	78.2	650,213	21.8	2,986,931
1980	2,318,077	77.7	666,485	22.3	2,984,562
1981	2,298,595	77.0	687,996	23.0	2,986,591
1982	2,282,965	76.2	711,682	23.8	2,994,647
1983	2,281,022	75.6	734,784	24.4	3,015,806
1984	2,260,551	74.9	757,169	25.1	3,017,720
1985	2,230,833	74.2	775,336	25.8	3,006,169

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics

Table 3. Students in Australian universities and advanced education, 1977 to 1985

Year	Full-time		Part-time				Total
	Number	Proportion of total per cent	Internal		External		Number
			Number	Proportion of total per cent	Number	Proportion of total per cent	
Universities							
1977	102,431	64.9	45,808	29.0	9,680	6.1	157,919
1978	100,629	63.1	47,171	29.6	11,606	7.3	159,406
1979	98,249	61.4	48,890	30.5	13,003	8.1	160,142
1980	98,076	60.4	50,299	30.9	14,109	8.7	162,484
1981	98,932	59.6	51,434	31.0	15,571	9.4	165,937
1982	99,324	59.6	51,868	31.1	15,497	9.3	166,689
1983	102,117	60.5	51,209	30.4	15,313	9.1	168,639
1984	105,369	61.3	50,649	29.4	15,972	9.3	171,990
1985	106,805	61.1	51,528	29.5	16,484	9.4	174,817
Advanced Education*							
1977	84,894	60.5	44,666	31.8	10,752	7.7	140,312
1978	84,266	56.2	51,407	34.3	14,249	9.5	149,922
1979	82,144	52.6	56,914	36.4	17,228	11.0	156,286
1980	78,225	48.4	62,253	38.5	21,086	13.1	161,564
1981	80,034	46.8	67,162	39.2	21,086	13.1	157,919
1982	81,125	46.5	68,162	39.0	25,368	14.5	174,655
1983	86,325	48.0	67,754	37.7	25,814	14.3	179,893

Table 3. Students in Australian universities and advanced education, 1977 to 1985 (cont'd)

Year	Full-time		Part-time				Total
	Number	Proportion of total per cent	Internal		External		Number
			Number	Proportion of total per cent	Number	Proportion of total per cent	
			Advanced Education* (cont'd)				
1984	90,852	48.9	67,679	36.4	27,289	14.7	185,820
1985	97,436	49.8	68,955	35.3	29,112	14.9	195,503
			Total Higher Education Students				
1977	187,325	62.8	90,474	30.3	20,432	6.9	298,231
1978	184,895	59.8	98,578	31.9	25,855	8.3	309,328
1979	180,393	57.0	105,804	33.4	30,231	9.6	316,428
1980	176,301	54.4	112,552	34.7	35,195	10.9	324,048
1981	178,966	53.1	118,596	35.2	39,508	11.7	337,070
1982	180,449	52.9	120,030	35.1	40,865	12.0	341,344
1983	188,442	54.1	118,963	34.1	41,127	11.8	348,532
1984	196,221	54.8	118,328	33.1	43,261	12.1	357,810
1985	204,241	55.2	120,483	32.5	45,596	12.3	370,320

* Prior to 1981, figures relate only to advanced education courses conducted in Colleges of Advanced Education. From 1981 onwards, figures relate to advanced education courses conducted in all institution types.

Source: Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission.

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Table 4. Technical and further education — total students and percentage distribution of students by type of enrolment within each stream, major TAFE authorities, Australia, 1984

Stream	Total enrolled	Full-time (a) per cent	Part-time (b) per cent	Per cent Total
1. Professional	3,301	17.6	82.4	100.0
2. Para-professional	243,831	10.8	89.2	100.0
3. Trades	147,225	9.4	90.6	100.0
4. Other skilled	269,560	6.2	93.8	100.0
5. Preparatory	214,811	9.0	91.0	100.0
Total Stream 1 to 5 (c)	832,105	9.6	90.4	100.0
6. Adult education	428,516	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

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There is no reason why the fortieth anniversary of the founding of UNESCO should coincide with any moment of particular significance in the educational policies of any of its Member States. The occasion does, however, offer a timely opportunity to reflect on the main objectives of educational policy in New Zealand since the end of the Second World War and to see how, 40 years on, they now fare. For it is becoming clear that our national system of public education has gone through one complete era of policy development and has entered a new one.

At the risk of over-generalizing, the post-war era can be interpreted in terms of commitments to policies that would achieve equality of educational opportunity for all New Zealanders. The era we have now entered is one in which those commitments are taken for granted but, because some sections of the New Zealand community have benefited from them more than others, they are now being criticized, re-examined, and redefined from the standpoint of social equity. In what follows I will sketch the main features of that post-war era and then point to trends and issues that are creating expectations and climates of opinion that are pressing for new educational responses to new policy issues.

The foundations of the educational policies of the post-war era were laid in the decade following the election of the first Labour Government at the end of 1935. Labour came to power after the worst economic depression New Zealand had known. It was determined to establish conditions for a better life for

FORTY YEARS ON IN NEW ZEALAND EDUCATION: A NEW NET GOES FISHING



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ordinary working people. The experience of the Second World War made New Zealanders even more committed to the building of a better kind of society. Education was at the heart of all policies of social reform.

Educational policy was directed by the Rt. Hon. Peter Fraser who, first as Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Education, and, later, as Prime Minister, kept an eagle eye on developments in the portfolio until Labour lost power in 1949. His annual report to Parliament in 1939 laid down an objective that has become the touchstone for all discussion of educational policy since then. 'The Government's objective', Fraser wrote:

... broadly expressed, is that every person, whatever his level of academic ability, whether he be rich or poor, whether he live in town or country, has a right, as a citizen, to a free education of the kind for which he is best fitted, and to the fullest extent of his powers. So far is this from being a mere pious platitude that the full acceptance of the principle will involve the reorientation of the education system.¹

When that was written, public education in New Zealand provided free education for all children for the eight years of primary schooling, and a ladder of opportunity by means of which able boys and girls, assisted with fees scholarships, could go on to some form of secondary or technical schooling, and then to a teachers college or university college. Transfer from primary to a secondary or technical school was by means of a national primary leaving examination. This had the effect of limiting both the number of students who completed primary schooling and those who were qualified for free secondary or technical education. When Labour came to power in 1935, 20 per cent of the boys and girls leaving primary school had not passed the final year examination and were not eligible for post-primary education; 57 per cent of the primary school leavers enrolled in some form of post-primary education; and 53 per cent of those who did go on, left school before completing two years of post-primary education.²

A comprehensive set of policy changes transformed that picture. The primary leaving examination was abolished in 1936.

That freed primary education from being, in effect, a form of preparatory schooling for the small number of children who would later go on to an academic secondary school. It gave primary teachers a mandate to develop school programmes better adapted to the interests and abilities of the generality of boys and girls. Then during the war years, the difficult issues of the form and content of post-primary education were tackled. A famous committee of inquiry, the Thomas Committee, proposed, and the public for the most part accepted, the idea of the core curriculum. The assumption was that all primary school leavers would go on to some form of post-primary schooling. That schooling should:

... ensure, as far as possible, that all post-primary pupils, irrespective of their varying abilities and their varying occupational ambitions, receive a generous and well balanced education. Such an education would aim, firstly, at the full development of the adolescent as a person; and, secondly at preparing him for an active place in our New Zealand society as worker, neighbour, homemaker, and citizen.³

The overriding aim was that all primary school-leavers would receive at least some post-primary education. Since this was their right (the school leaving age had been raised to 15 in 1943), the education they received should be personally fulfilling. A better educated citizenry was also seen to be an essential requirement for an effective working democracy. Secondary education should open up, not close off, opportunity. Vocational choices should be left as late as possible in each teenager's schooling. The earlier distinction between academic and vocational courses was first blurred and then much reduced. All public post-primary schools built since the war have been planned to provide a full range of course offerings.

The intention was to encourage every teenager to stay at post-primary school for at least three and possibly four years. To provide evidence of the successful completion of a course of secondary education a new form of school certificate was introduced. This took the form of a leaving examination to be sat by able students after completing three years of the secondary core curriculum and by most students after four. The belief was that the School Certificate examination would replace the University Entrance

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examination as a shaping influence on secondary school programmes and, even more important, that its influence would be benign.

The University Entrance award was also changed. Courses of study in preparation for University Entrance would be taken in the year or years after the completion of the core curriculum, although it was not necessary for a candidate to have passed the School Certificate to be eligible for the University Entrance award. To lessen the former dominance of the university examination, post-primary schools that met certain conditions were given the power to accredit their own students. The aim was to maintain the traditional role of preparing students for university study but to reduce as far as possible the dominance of the award over secondary curricula.

In New Zealand, as in most other countries after the war, there were unprecedentedly high birth rates. Between 1946 and 1966 the percentage of the New Zealand population under the age of 20 rose from 35 per cent to 42 per cent in an increasing total population. During the years, therefore, when changes in the structure of the education system were encouraging more children and young people to continue their formal education to higher levels, the number of young people who were in fact doing so increased greatly.

The nature and extent of public education, and the policies that should guide its development, became important items of public concern and political debate during the post-war era. Between 1942 and 1975 every aspect of public education was subjected to some form of public inquiry, and recommendations were made for its further reform and development. Early childhood education, adult education, teacher education, university and other forms of tertiary education, rural education, distance education, Maori education, the education of girls and women, the concept of lifelong education, and the education of children with disabilities – all were reviewed, some of them more than once. The common denominator of all these reviews, the impulse that set them in motion, was the commitment to a belief in equality of educational opportunity.

The two main political parties disagreed on the emphasis to be placed on certain values in the process of education but, by the 1960s, they were effectively in agreement that one of the abiding objectives of public education was to ensure equality of educational opportunity. Generally speaking, therefore, the New Zealand community accepted the point which Peter Fraser had underlined in

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1939. The translation into practice of a policy commitment to equality of educational opportunity was requiring the reorientation of the entire education system.

This egalitarian commitment, though of overriding concern, was never the only educational value of importance of New Zealanders in the post-war era. Also important has been the role of education in developing the pools of talent that, since the war, nations of the first world have found to be necessary to their social and economic well-being. This issue was very much in people's minds during the late 1950s (sputnik was launched in 1957) and became an important part of the justification for the large, expensive increase in university and tertiary technical education during the 1960s and 1970s. From social and educational points of view there was no conflict between policies aimed at developing the pool of highly qualified people and a commitment to equality of educational opportunity. Such policies were supported as a necessary corollary of the underlying value commitment, which would continue to be honoured so long as admission policies to New Zealand universities remained 'open' and students who were qualified to enter them were not excluded.

Another issue was, however, the escalating costs of education and whether the taxpayer could afford to pay even more in future. Public expenditure on education rose from 2.1 per cent of GDP in 1946 to 4.1 per cent in 1966 and 5.0 per cent in 1974. The increase was not as great as in leading first world countries but it placed great strain on the New Zealand economy which, during the 1970s and 1980s, has been going through the difficulties and uncertainties of structural change at a time of deteriorating international terms of trade. Moreover, in modern welfare societies, education has to compete with other objectives of public expenditure on social policies. In New Zealand this competition has become intense during the last decade. Justifying educational expenditure has become a way of life for those committed to the further improvement of the system.

A third issue has been criticism of the egalitarian ethos by those whose allegiance is to the enhancement of traditional academic values in education. In the public debates during the last 50 years they have equated policies aimed at equalizing educational opportunity with the endorsement of mediocrity and the subversion of educational standards. Advocates of this view of the essential role of

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public education have at different times deplored the abolition of the primary leaving certificate (1936), the Thomas Committee proposals (1943), the policy under which secondary schools could accredit students for University Entrance (1945), entry standards for university admission and the policy of 'open entry' (1954); various moves since the war to make school curricula better adapted to all boys and girls, regardless of their presumed academic potential, and all moves to remove external examinations from secondary schools.

These various issues provided the agenda for public debate on education until the mid to late 1970s. Looking back on those years, it is now possible to see more clearly how much they had the effect of focusing public attention on some educational issues to the exclusion of others. Defenders of the post-war reforms had to demonstrate that, as time went on, the system was providing greater educational opportunity. They did this in two main ways: by reference to statistics which showed that more young people were receiving a longer formal education and were achieving recognized school leaving qualifications — school leaving awards, university degrees and diplomas and other tertiary awards, professional, technician, and trade qualifications; and by comparison with the performance of other first world countries which, increasingly after the war, were committing themselves to the policy objective of equalizing educational opportunity. Those whose prime interest in education was its contribution to national development by increasing pools of talent were similarly interested in what was happening to the top quarter or third of each age group. So, too, were the defenders of traditional academic standards. And the evidence and arguments that were produced in one or other of these contexts was recycled in the debate about whether the country was getting value for the money spent on education.

Out of these public debates emerged, by the 1960s, a widely-held apologia for the New Zealand public education system. It began with an approving recital of the Fraser quotation. It rehearsed the reforms mentioned above and their contribution to an evolving concept of equality of educational opportunity. It described the flexibility and openness of the system which, through its structure, leaves as late as possible the time when students must make choices or reach standards that would bear upon their later educational opportunity. It stressed the policies of open entry to New Zealand

universities and the various arrangements of long standing which enable adults without formal academic qualifications to be admitted to university courses of study. It pointed to the low costs of university and other tertiary education, and to the fact that students who had passed their University Entrance would have to pay more to join the university student association than they would to receive university education.

It acknowledged that entry standards to university were, in academic terms, not as high as in some countries, notably the United Kingdom. But this was justified in the name of equality of educational opportunity. Studies in New Zealand and elsewhere had shown that higher admission standards would exclude as many potential successful graduates as failures.⁴ It acknowledged that the evidence, such as it was, on educational standards, though satisfactory, was not as unequivocal as apologists for the system would like. It acknowledged, too, that not all young New Zealanders were able to make the best of the educational opportunities that were available to them. Girls were one such group, but the evidence of participation rates showed that their position was improving. Maori — and, later, Pacific islands — boys and girls were also clearly disadvantaged. Again, there was some evidence that the gap was closing. But it was taking longer than expected, and the proportions of Maori and Pacific island children in the school system were increasing.

The received view in 1975, when the Educational Development Conference⁵ completed a comprehensive review, was that the public system of education was in reasonably good shape. There were criticisms to meet; further developments to be undertaken; special groups for whom, in the interests of equality of educational opportunity, more had to be done. But there was no need to make fundamental changes to the public education system itself. The changes that were needed could all be achieved within the existing structure. The most important requirement was to spend more money on education. In international terms, New Zealand was a low-cost system. Most of the shortcomings of the system, however, called for qualitative improvements, and that meant more money to support the work of teachers and other providers of educational services.

Opportunity and equity

A decade later, that apologia is still very much alive. But it is not as well as it was. During the intervening ten years it has become increasingly clear, that many things that articulate New Zealanders had either taken for granted or had never had to think about, have become the subject of wide-ranging public argument. Discussion about educational objectives, the extent to which they are being achieved, who benefits from public education and who does not, and what ought to be done through education to achieve greater social equity figures prominently in that argument. And, in those arguments, apologists for the public education system have found themselves justifying 'the system' in response to entirely new groups of critics with new lines of advocacy.

The phrase 'equality of educational opportunity' is no longer the talisman it was. No one disputes that all citizens have a right to equality of educational opportunity. The public debate now focuses on the outcomes of education; not the access to it. The 'reorientation' of the education system heralded by the Rt. Hon Peter Fraser in 1939 has been an accomplished fact long enough for its results to be evaluated in relation to its policy objective. From being the objective of educational reform, equality of educational opportunity has become a criterion in the light of which shortcomings and deficiencies in the education system, as actually experienced, can be identified. The ground for public debate has thus changed in a very important respect. The key policy issue is no longer to expand educational opportunities but how to achieve equality of educational results. It is not what the system makes possible for the top half but what it rules out for the bottom half of young people that has become the focus of attention. The education system is no longer praised for the equality of opportunity it provides: it is criticized for the way it aids and abets other social processes in the distribution of life chances.

There are several reasons for this shift in the ground of public debate. The first relates to the educational questions that have been raised by unemployment, particularly youth unemployment. Between 1945 and 1975 every able-bodied New Zealander who wanted a job could get one. There was a greater demand for all kinds of skills and qualifications than there were people to supply them. The relationship between the education system and the job market was

loose and open. As mentioned above, most of the public interest was in education and training for professional, technician and the traditional trades. Students leaving secondary school without formal leaving qualification had no difficulty getting or keeping jobs. New Zealanders prided themselves on the fact that, whatever might be the experience of other countries, our egalitarian society provided work for all who wanted it.

Since 1975, as one consequence of the economic difficulties the country is facing, there has been persisting unemployment. The incidence is low in international terms. The percentage of the work-force who were unemployed (or in special work or training schemes) rose from 0.4 per cent in 1975 to 9.6 per cent in 1983 and was 6.3 per cent in 1985. But the effects have been traumatic for a society which had mistakenly thought that unemployment was a thing of the past. School leavers have come to form a significant part of the unemployed and those on special work schemes. One of the questions that is asked in public discussion is why it is, after at least ten years of formal education, that numbers of school leavers do not have the qualifications, skills, and personal qualities that will enable them to get a job. Critics do not regard it as a satisfactory answer that the great percentage of school leavers either get jobs or go on to further education or training before doing so. The residual percentage may not be large but the numbers are. They are evidence of a failure of the school system to provide a 'generous and well balanced education' (the words of the Thomas Report) for all boys and girls.

Moreover, a disproportionately large number of those leaving school with low qualifications or no qualifications are Maori or Pacific islanders. In total, Maori students are about 17 per cent and Pacific island students perhaps 2 per cent of the school population. In many schools in the North Island, particularly in metropolitan Auckland, New Zealand's largest city, they are a much higher percentage. In all educational statistics, however, they are at a disadvantage when their attainments are compared with those of the *pakeha** majority. And, in common with many cultural minorities in other first world countries, their poor attainments in education are, in general, associated also with low income and socio-economic status, poor housing, more health problems, higher rates of offending and

* (NZ) white man.

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disproportionately large numbers in prisons, on probation, or unemployed and on special training schemes. What the school system is doing for Maori and Pacific island youth has thus become part of the larger debate about social equity and what should be done to remove the massive inequalities Maori and Pacific islanders live under.

Inequalities between girls and boys, women and men in New Zealand society, and persons with disabilities of various kinds, have also become a focus of public concern.



Photograph by: Andrzej Nowakowsky

Hutt Valley Memorial College

The public debate on social equity in New Zealand is, of course, part of a much larger international concern. New Zealanders are thus reflecting on this major issue of social policy in the knowledge that it is one of the most complex and intractable matters that modern societies have to come to terms with. There is a vast body of research which describes inequality in its various forms. There is

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a good deal of information about the policies that are being followed in various countries and how they are faring. There are also important insights to be gained from research and reflection in the social sciences. All this is a gain for understanding. But it does not provide any certain answers.

There are, however, some general conclusions that can be drawn. It is now clear, for instance, that social systems and education systems are not neutral ⁶ in the way they distribute life chances. Thanks to the research and explanations of social psychologists, sociologists, and anthropologists, we can now see some of the deficiencies of the policies which, with the aim of achieving equality of educational opportunity, were put in place in New Zealand and other countries after the war. It was not until the 1960s and 1970s that we began to realize that a model of human interaction based essentially on variables relating to socio-economic status, geographic location, and the impact of a state education system left out something important. In terms of what was actually happening, the reforming policies conferred more educational benefits on the children of parents with more education than those with less, of those with more income than with less, of boys more than girls, and on *pakeha* more than Maori, Pacific islander, or recent migrant. The model had identified some of the important variables but not all of them.

We can now see that the education system that has been developed in New Zealand has, until quite recent years, been implicitly male and mono-cultural in its essential valuations. The knowledge that it has been so, raised, however, some very awkward questions of policy. How people respond to that discovery depends very much on larger webs of interpretation they may weave around it. One response is to try to change the inner-structure of the system itself. This calls for policies of redress: affirmative action, respect for culture difference, a commitment to multi-culturalism, and rigorous reviews of school curricula, teacher education, the gender and ethnic mix of the teaching profession and controlling authorities, and a determination to make the cultural and gender messages of the education system representative of the larger society. This approach tends to be favoured by members of the dominant culture, leaders of the education establishment, and men.

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The response of those at the other end of the spectrum is for greater self-determination. On their view of the world and the way it works, the dominant culture in a society, no matter what concessions are made for minority cultures (and no matter what its liberal ideologists may believe), will maintain its cultural hegemony. We are dealing, they say, with the basic power relationships in a society. Only when those relationships are changed radically, so that minorities are able to act in all respects in the way the dominant culture has in the past been able to do, will inequity be removed. This would mean, among other changes, separate schools for cultural minorities.

Another response, more accommodating to the dominant culture, is to work within the existing educational system but to have, in effect, a separate sub-system. In New Zealand, this option has credibility in current public discussion by virtue of the fact that the state education system has in recent years reached an accommodation with the proprietors of Roman Catholic schools, whose schools have been 'integrated' into the state system under certain conditions. The proprietors remain responsible for capital expenditure. The state meets the full running costs of their schools up to state standards. State curricula are followed but these may be interpreted by the proprietor in terms of the 'special character' of the school: school curricula may be taught in the light of Roman Catholic theology. This precedent is attracting Maori New Zealanders who are seeking greater opportunities for the expression of distinctively Maori values in the education of their children and young people but who are also committed to the ideal of a bi-cultural New Zealand community.

In New Zealand today, these three different responses all have their advocates. Education is one of the key issues in the various arguments and counter-arguments that are the subject of soul-searching debate. Instead, however, of being presented, as it was until the mid-1970s, as part of the answer, the education system is now seen by its critics as part of the problem. The pendulum has swung again. As in the 1930s, it is the critics of the system, not its advocates, who are on the offensive. The removal of basic inequalities is still the objective. But it is equity (fairness), not opportunity, that provides the rallying cry now.

Equity and self-determination

There is a Maori proverb which says: '*Ka pu te ruha, ka hao te rangatahi*'. In English this means: The old net is cast aside and a new net is put in its place — or, a new net goes fishing. There can be no doubt that a new net is going fishing in New Zealand public life today. It is used by Maori as the tangata whenua (the original land owners), members of other cultural minorities, feminists, the disabled, and the unemployed. It is fashioned from an ideology of self determination. It calls for radical changes in the way public goods such as education, health, and welfare services are organized and administered. It is a net which is now being used most prominently on behalf of groups who see themselves as oppressed, or disadvantaged. A similar net has, however, long been used — and still is being used — by other New Zealanders who, from religious conviction, a belief in some alternative approach to education, or because they value choice, also want to control it so that they can determine how their children are educated.

Education is, however, different from fishing. Various kinds of nets are fishing in educational waters all the time. The question (as in fishing) is which net is most likely to catch particular kinds of fish.

The old net is still very much in use. It is fashioned from an ideology of the role of the state and the way public goods such as education should be provided. Its assumption, long taken for granted by New Zealanders, is that the public interest is served best when public goods are administered through agencies which are under public control — that is to say, through public servants accountable to some duly elected public authority. Public education in New Zealand is based on that assumption. During the last 40 years the meshes of its net have been greatly extended and it now draws in all New Zealanders in important ways at many points in their lives and in the lives of their families. It has many believers in its continuing usefulness and adaptability.

But it is precisely because the old net is better for some fish than others that the new net is now going fishing. And to the surprise of those who still believe in the old net, despite its demonstrated shortcomings, the new net has backers from an unexpected quarter. There is at present in New Zealand, as in many other first world countries, much public debate about the effectiveness of the

state as an agency for the administration of public goods. The ideological heartland of this critical reappraisal is in the Treasury itself, the state's own paymaster. All forms of state-provided services are being scrutinized in terms of their efficiency and effectiveness. A question being asked of the education system is whether it has been hijacked by the producers. Is it, in its present form, acting more in the interests of the teaching profession, the educational establishment of the Department of Education and the controlling authorities, and the members of the New Zealand community who benefit from the possession of high-level academic and vocational qualifications, than it is of the young of most citizens?

The education system as it has developed since the War is thus being pressed on both flanks. Considered from the flank of social policy, its benefits are not distributed equitably. It helps the children of the haves more than the children of the have-nots. Considered from the flank of the efficient allocation of resources, the criticism is the same. More of the taxpayers' money is spent on the educational haves than the have-nots. The poor are subsidizing the better off and, in doing so, maintaining an inequitable distribution of opportunities and rewards.

There is thus a strong case against the old net. But it is as yet far from clear whether the new net will catch the fish the old one is letting through. Until the present debate, all educational developments initiated by governments in the public interest have been administered through state agencies. Apart from a small number of private schools (which enrol 2 per cent of primary and 4 per cent of secondary students) and a few commercial colleges and coaching colleges, there is little in the way of a private sector in education. This lack of alternatives in the market-place is one reason why voucher proposals and the concept of consumer sovereignty have not so far made much way in the public debate. To have a private market for education and the reality of consumer choice, it is first necessary to establish Harvard College 300 years ago.

It seems unlikely that the old net will be taken to pieces and restored to the community in the form of vouchers which consumers, whether individually or in voluntary association, would then spend according to their own wishes. The experience of those who have banded together to run their own alternative school is that it is

an enormous undertaking. It requires commitment, resourcefulness and effort which even determined people have difficulty maintaining for more than a few years. The old net is thus likely to remain in use because it is there and because those who may be critical of it are unable to get a new net into the water.

But there is one part of the New Zealand community that could take a new net fishing in educational waters. Increasingly during the last decade, Maori New Zealanders have been experiencing a rebirth of the spirit. They are taking their future in their own hands with great energy and enterprise. The *Tu Tangata* (stand tall) movement is radical in two important senses of the word: it is a return to the roots of Maori spiritual values; and the new mood of self-determination is evident in every aspect of Maori life. The new mood, furthermore, is articulated by able leaders of all ages who are as adept at working through the political networks of the pakeha world as of the Maori world.



Photograph by: Andrzej Nowakowsky

Wellington East Girls College

What this new mood will produce in education is hard to predict. Maori New Zealanders want more power of self determination for themselves, more respect for Maori cultural values and,

among other things, more control of the education of their children. Maori leaders, like pakeha, differ among themselves about the policies that would most effectively give expression to these objectives. At one end of the spectrum there are those who, working within the education system, want a more tangible commitment, including pro-rata funding, to the education of Maori children, young people and adults in terms which the Maori people are themselves spelling out. At the other end are those who argue that Maori values can prevail only in Maori institutions: self determination requires separate institutions under Maori control.

The thought of educational policies based on separate institutions is very disturbing to most pakeha New Zealanders. Nor do most influential Maori leaders think it necessary to achieve the changes they are seeking. But they insist that the system must transform itself. At the very least, important features of the new net must be built into the old, if it is to be better at catching Maori fish.

The government is sympathetic to Maori aspirations for self determination. It recently decided to authorise Maori tribal committees to spend taxpayers' money on training programmes for Maori youth. Previously, all such moneys were administered by the Department of Labour according to uniform national criteria. Local Maori committees will now control expenditure on 20 per cent of the total funds available for training programmes. The power of decision having been delegated to a local community group, it will soon be possible to see whether local Maori people can achieve better results for their own young people than public servants, working through existing institutions have done in the past. If the venture is reasonably successful, there are other educational policies which, Maori people will argue, should also be returned to the people.

The question would then be whether Maori tribal or marae (local community) committees, empowered to make spending decisions on education, would set out to provide the services they were paying for, or whether they would buy these services from existing educational institutions. For the future delivery of educational services in New Zealand much could turn on their decisions.

I have not tried to argue for any particular significance for the year 1986 in New Zealand's educational history. My aim, rather, has been to show that, in 1986, New Zealanders are coming to terms

with different issues from the ones they faced in 1946, when UNESCO was created. The ideals that guided the post war educational reforms, having become the educational orthodoxies of the 1960s and early 1970s, have now come under critical scrutiny from New Zealanders who want educational expenditure to be targeted more obviously to the removal of social and, even more, cultural inequalities. The net that was new in 1946 is now an old one. Can it be refashioned to do more effectively in future what it was intended to do? Or must it be replaced by a new one?

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Formulating a new education policy is a formidable task, especially in a country like India, which is a Union of States and Union Territories with well defined powers and responsibilities under the National Constitution of 1951 and a multiplicity of languages, cultures and very great variations in physico-geographical conditions, levels of economic and educational development and the availability of infrastructural facilities.

Over the last three and a half decades since attaining independence, the number of educational institutions has increased from 230,000 to 690,000. Of this 690,000, 73 per cent are primary schools, providing facilities for education within the habitation for 90 per cent of the children between the ages of 6 to 14. The middle schools, taking care of education up to age 14, are 123,300 in number. Higher secondary education is being provided through nearly 55,000 schools. On the top of the educational ladder, there are over 50,000 colleges and 150 universities providing higher education in arts, sciences and humanities. In addition to these are also a large number of certificate, diploma and degree level vocational and technical institutions.

While most of the primary and middle level schools and the vocational and technical education institutions and the universities are run by the Government and its agencies, a large percentage of secondary schools and colleges are being managed by registered societies and trusts, generally with up to 90 per cent funding by the government for revenue expenditure.

A RETROSPECTIVE VIEW OF FORMULATING A NEW EDUCATION POLICY



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In 1982-1983, the student population totalled 114 million. Even though, between 1950-1951 to 1982-1983, the compound growth rate of enrolment of girls was 5.5 per cent as compared to 3.9 per cent for boys, girls of all socio-cultural groups are still far behind boys in rural as well as urban areas. Similarly, despite a faster growth rate as compared to total population, because of a very low base, the participation of children of the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes is still at a very low level.

In relation to school education, besides tackling the problem of low levels of enrolment of girls and of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, the education system has to face the gigantic problem of school drop-outs. Estimates of retention vary but it seems reasonable to state that of any ten children who enrol in Class I, despite the 'no detention' policy, not more than six go beyond Class V, the majority dropping out in the first two years of schooling. It can, therefore, be stated that retention or prevention of drop-outs is the most important problem of school education.

The literacy rate has registered a significant increase, from 16.67 per cent in 1951 to 36.23 per cent in 1981, and the number of literates has increased from 60 million to 248 million during this period. However, due to the rapid increase in the population, the absolute number of illiterates in India is more now than at the dawn of independence in 1947.

Against this disturbing background, there are some facts which indicate positive developments of great significance. Of the total of 3,200,000 teachers, 86 per cent have received training in teacher training institutions. Some of the states like Kerala have attained a high level of enrolment and retention, where the literacy rate is as high as 70 per cent. There is no doubt that India has made giant strides in providing diversified education of high quality at the undergraduate and post-graduate level, in science, arts, humanities, agriculture, engineering, medicine and management. Indian economy has been characterized by a considerable capacity to internalize new technologies and launch into sophisticated areas of infrastructural development and industrial production. India has, despite its burgeoning population, also achieved self-sufficiency in food. For all this, India has been self-reliant in terms of trained manpower. In fact, all over the developing world, educated Indian personnel

have been in such great demand that planners and educational administrators are worried about the economic cost of the brain-drain. Young people from many developing countries flock to India for higher general and technical education because, for comparative quality of education, fees in India are less than 10 per cent of the fees in the other developing countries. In medical, engineering and management education, the level of subsidization is as high as 90 to 95 per cent. Thus far, India has continued to charge the same fees for overseas students as are payable by the Indian students.

The foregoing paragraphs show that the pyramid of Indian education is characterized by great imbalances with the best at the top being as good as the best anywhere else in the world while the majority at the base are unable either to enrol or to stay on in schools and attain a minimum level of educational proficiency. This disparity between the masses and a selected few is unacceptable in a country committed to the goals of democracy, egalitarianism and socialism.

Even before India attained independence, the leadership of the freedom movement evolved a fairly clear scenario of the post-independence society. They pledged themselves to the removal of socio-economic inequalities and a pattern of modernization and development which would ensure that all citizens, irrespective of caste, creed and sex, would have equal opportunities of participating in socio-economic development and deriving equitable benefits from the augmentation of national income. The attainment of these goals of social justice and equity in education was seen as the bed-rock of the whole process of development.

Soon after independence, when the enlightened leadership of the freedom struggle took up the framing of the constitution, they laid down specifically that the 'state shall endeavour to provide, within a period of ten years from the commencement of this constitution, for free and compulsory education of all children until they complete the age of 14 years'. They also made sure that education would not bypass the weaker sections of society by laying down that the interests of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes would be protected and the religious and cultural minorities would have the right not only to establish and administer institutions of their choice but that they would also receive state assistance for their institutions, without any discrimination.

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Right from the start, the responsibility for co-ordination and determination of standards in institutions for higher education or research and scientific and technical education was assigned exclusively to the union government, leaving the other levels of education to the constituent state governments. In 1976, however, the constitution was amended so as to grant concurrent powers to the union government to enable it to participate at these levels and also to give direction. If considered necessary, it could also lend greater dynamism to school education and vocational and general education at secondary levels.

By another amendment, the constitution laid down certain fundamental duties of the citizens which, *inter alia*, required, in pursuance of the thrust for modernization and secularism, that they would strive towards excellence in all spheres of individual and collective activity and develop the scientific temper, humanism and the spirit of inquiry and reform.

The new initiative for formulation of an education policy has to be seen in the context of constitutional directives, the goals of democracy, socialism and secularism and also the framework of the Education Policy framed earlier in 1968 and what followed thereafter until 1985, when a new government took office with a new Prime Minister, Mr. Rajiv Gandhi.

The 1968 policy resolution on education aimed at promoting national progress, creating a sense of common citizenship and culture and strengthening national integration. It laid stress on the need for a radical transformation/reconstruction of education involving expansion of opportunities, intensification of efforts to improve quality at all stages, much greater attention to science and technology, cultivation of moral values and a closer relationship between education and the life of the people. The adoption of the 1968 policy gave a fillip to linear expansion of educational facilities and the establishment of a uniform pattern of primary, upper primary, secondary and tertiary education with science and mathematics figuring uniformly for everyone and a three language formula for education in all parts of the country. However, its qualitative impact was not in consonance with the needs and aspirations of the country. A major reason for this was that the adoption of policy was not followed by a detailed strategy for implementation, concretising the financial and organizational implications and the assignment of

carefully spelt out tasks, derived from policy objectives and postulates, to identified bodies, institutions and individuals squarely accountable for their fulfilment.

The process of formulation of the new education policy for India was considerably complicated by the fact that the country has a large and highly politicized intelligentsia, prone to perfectionist attitudes to problems. There are also several state governments with political complexions at variance with the leanings of the union government. The union government, therefore, decided that the new policy should be born out of a national debate on the present state, the potentials and the national expectations with reference to the education system.

To initiate the debate, a status paper entitled *The challenge of education* was issued by the Government of India in August 1986. To begin with, this document was discussed with the Education Ministers of the State Governments on 29-30 August 1985. Thereafter, it was released to the public at large, with 580,000 copies being issued in English, and another half a million copies being circulated in all the regional languages. The discussion was set off through debates in both houses of the parliament, 11 national seminars and 17 sponsored seminars organized by the union government and its agencies. In addition, conferences and workshops of legislators, local authorities, teachers, trade union leaders and students' representatives were also organized. However, the State Governments were persuaded to assume the responsibility for carrying the debate right down to the grass roots level.

The 'challenge' document was discussed in practically every educational institution between educational managers, teachers and parents. Some State Governments went so far as to discuss the contents of the document and its implications for the new policy in cabinet meetings as well as state legislatures. Hundreds of knowledgeable and interested individuals wrote at length in newspapers and literally thousands of letters (which were documented later in 14 volumes) poured in from citizens. These urged the government to take radical measures to universalize elementary education and eradicate illiteracy on a priority basis, reorient education to give it greater relevance to societal needs and ensure that education would nurture humane values and, besides strengthening the integrative elements in the pluralistic Indian society, also prepare society, through research

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and well designed programmes of manpower development, to face up to the challenges of the coming decades.

The 'challenge' document evoked such a tremendous response essentially because it was an extremely candid document describing the educational scenario without any attempt to hide the realities and offer excuses for the many jobs left undone. It proposed that the education system should, besides concerning itself with the integrated and creative development of the potentials of individuals, assume the responsibility of creating a wider awareness of the physical and social environment, generate new knowledge in all fields within reach of the human mind, and also evolve principles, methodologies and guidelines for the application of knowledge for benefiting society and solving problems of development. It also emphasized the inter-relationships between education and society and underscored the responsibility of the educational processes to integrate the individual into the social system with its values and priorities, and above all, to equalize opportunities and reduce disparities between individuals irrespective of their socio-cultural and economic backgrounds.

The 'challenge' document presented a systematic study of the socio-political, legal, institutional and financial environment, identifying the facilitating and constraining factors, in an attempt to create a widespread consciousness of the factors to be kept in view while formulating a new policy for educational development. While a high degree of political will, significant advances in communication capabilities and a widespread network of institutions were listed as positive features, it was noted that any new policy framework would have to reckon with a variety of politically aligned vested interests within the education system favouring the status quo, inadequate infrastructure for producing educational software to match technological potentials of the communication media, methodological constraints in projecting manpower needs, the inertia of the institutional structure, the role conflict between Union and State Governments and the overwhelming constraints of financial resources. The 'challenge' put forward a tentative strategy for education seeking to integrate the requirements of universalization of elementary education; production of sophisticated manpower in adequate numbers to deal creatively with new technologies; diversified vocationalization; and the creation of an overall environment for change

and development through adult and continuing education with appropriate measures for structural improvements and greater managerial efficiency to improve the outputs of all educational sectors.

The content of *The Challenge of Education* and the debate around it have been highlighted here because these were at the heart of the entire process of policy formulation which sought a kind of national consensus which would imbue the policy with an imperative character and prevent the educational situation from relapsing after the adoption of the new policy, as it did earlier after the 1968 policy, into the old and well-worn ways. This tendency towards routinization, it was felt, could only be counteracted by the vigilance of the public, who would take the requisite interest only if they had actively participated in the formulation of the policy.

As a matter of fact the issue of the highly provocative document and the systematic encouragement of a wide ranging debate, was a unique experiment in public participation. Generally, public participation takes the form either of a campaign to elicit public views, without providing any of the framework, on perceived problems and aspirations, or of seeking an endorsement from the people on the pre-determined proposals put forward by the Government. *The Challenge for Education*, on the other hand, provided all the critical facts, set forth the internal and external constraints and offered different alternatives without proposing any specific course of action. This meant that the people could give their informed opinions on educational tasks and priorities without having to take a view for or against a specific course of action favoured by the Government.

The feedback from the State Governments, the educational institutions, the intelligentsia and the teachers and many other sections of the public was analysed by expert groups and the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration and the perspective and the issues emerging therefrom were discussed with educationists, parliamentarians and in working groups of Education Ministers of States.

It was noted that India's political and social life was under great strain largely because the forces of religious revivalism, regionalism, intolerance and violence were not being counteracted by education; placing the goals of secularism, democracy and professional

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ethics in jeopardy. Again, the mass media, which had extended their reach to the farthest corners of the country, were encouraging unbridled consumerism, conspicuous consumption and a skewed pattern of investment and elitist development at variance with the objectives of national planning. This, it was realized, might result in rapid depletion of non-renewable resources, serious deterioration of ecological balance and the flight of educated youth to the urban areas.

It was also apparent that an increase in population would continue to pose a major challenge in relation to maintaining self-sufficiency in food, diversifying and augmenting employment opportunities to match the demand for jobs, increasing productivity through new and emerging technologies for improving the standard of living of the people and keeping abreast with international competition. To deal with this situation, diverse strategies would have to be developed for ensuring the delivery of the benefits of development to all the people, especially the deprived sections and women; who have hitherto remained outside the mainstream of economic, social and educational development. This, however, will be possible only if there is widespread participation of all sections of the people, especially the target groups needing special attention.

It also emerged that the new education policy would have to improve access to school education and reduce to the minimum the disparities in the level of competence between children studying in different institutions, in rural and urban areas, in different parts of the country. Further, in the face of compelling constraints of resources, much greater emphasis would have to be placed upon institutional efficiency so that investments would yield commensurate returns. Another major concern which came to the forefront pertained to the role of non-formal and continuing education since these were seen as determinants of access to education for women, working children and adults.

Against this perspective, a framework of objectives was conceptualized in order to determine priorities and formulate a statement of the National Policy of Education. Some of the objectives which emerged as a result of this iterative exercise were:

- i) Developing the full potentials of all individuals;
- ii) Promoting the establishment a more harmonious and cohesive social order;

- iii) Counteracting dogmatism and the myopic pursuit of purely individualistic, sectional and communal goals in disregard of the cumulative impact of such attitudes on society;
- iv) Providing technologies and competent manpower to fight ignorance, poverty and disease and prevent the degradation of environment and depletion of non-renewable resources;
- v) Facilitating self-reliance and equitable socio-economic growth through effective use of science and technology;
- vi) Creating a learning environment to enable participants to develop integrated personalities, imbibe positive and humane values, acquire the character and the strength to fight oppression and injustice;
- vii) Developing curricula and organizing educational transactions to equip the students with the knowledge and skills for achieving a high level of productivity in the fields of their endeavour;
- viii) Reform of the examination system to ensure that the memory based system of annual external education would not result in distorting everything, from the contents of education to the process of teaching and learning, the functioning of teachers and the behaviour of students;
- ix) Setting up organizational structures for techno-economic forecasting with a view to visualizing and managing the challenges of rapidly changing scenarios of techno-economic situations and for developing effective mechanisms for understanding the nature and directions of changes and incorporating the means of dealing with these through their extensive systems;
- x) Ending the existence of a situation of anarchy in educational institutions engendered largely by a theological rather than a managerial approach to autonomy by ensuring that all educational activities would be managed in an atmosphere of utmost intellectual rigour, seriousness of purpose and, at the same time, of freedom and excitement essential for innovation and creativity;

- xi) Persuading every institution to accept some minimum norms of performance and undertake to start functioning in accordance with these; and
- xii) Developing educational management as a discrete discipline in order to remove the confusion of roles and responsibilities and facilitate the development of norms for evaluating performance and in this content, the identification of beneficiaries and others to whom individuals, institutions and structures would be accountable.

Keeping the constitutional obligations and the above objectives in view, a 'Presentation' of Education Policy was formulated for a third round of discussions which took place under the auspices of the Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) and the National Development Council. The CABE is a body comprising the various Union and State Governments' Ministers and selected educationists and other individuals associated with various segments of economy and voluntary organizations. The National Development Council (NDC) is the highest deliberative body in the country, headed by the Prime Minister with the Chief Ministers of State Governments, Member of the National Planning Commission and key ministers of the Union Government, as members.

Both these bodies broadly endorsed the 'presentation' of policy but, while doing so, laid special emphasis on the need for flexibility and disaggregated planning, the importance of elementary education and literacy, preparing the country for technological challenges of the coming decades, examination reforms, teachers' roles, techniques of educational planning and management, the mobilization of adequate resources and finally on the operational strategy and the mechanics of policy implementation. A major decision which emerged from these discussions was that, as a follow up of policy formulation, a separate Action Plan for Policy Implementation would be prepared and made available to the CABE, the NDC and to all others concerned with, or interested in, education.

Following these meetings of CABE and NDC, a draft of the Education Policy was presented to both the houses of the National Parliament early in May 1986, for consideration and approval. The draft has since been finalized and the National Policy of Education, 1986 has been issued for widespread dissemination and implementation. Once again, an outcome of the debate in the

Parliament was an assurance from the Government that a progress report on policy implementation would hereafter be presented in every session of parliament.

The New Education Policy seeks to establish, for the first time in free India's history, a National System of Education, which lays down an overall curricular framework and a core curriculum to establish comparability of competence at the end of various stages of education all over the country, reinforce the integrative aspects of society and culture and also establish a value system necessary for an egalitarian, democratic and secular society. The new policy has not shied away from enunciating the combative role of the value system in eliminating obscurantism, religious fanaticism, violence, superstition and fatalism and has charged education squarely with the task of creating a universal consciousness of the inherent equality of sexes and of all individuals, irrespective of caste, creed or religion. The new policy presents the problem of socio-cultural inequalities in very sharp focus and lists the specific steps in such detail that it could, with ample justification, be described as nothing less than a Charter, not only for equality of access to education, but also for equalisation with regard to the status of disadvantaged sections of society.

The 1986 policy has finally come to brass-tacks with the thorny issue of giving shape to the constitutional provisions of concurrency of education, not only by enunciating the details of a National System of Education but also by laying down that educational transformation, reduction of disparities, universalization of elementary education, adult education and scientific and technological research would be accepted as national responsibilities for which the provision of adequate resource support will be the concern, not only the State Governments, but of all the agencies, specially the Union Government, which are collectively responsible for national development.

In relation to Universalization of Elementary Education, the policy has moved away from the mechanical concept of years of schooling and stated categorically and concretely that minimum levels of learning will be laid down and measures will be taken to ensure that these would be achieved in a quantifiable and verifiable manner. This specificity of learning will be reflected in non-formal education also; non-formal education has been recognized as an essential ingredient of the national programme of educational development.

Up to now, universalization has meant no more than universal enrolment. Realizing the sterility of this concept in a situation in which 60 per cent of the children drop out before acquiring the competence to read and write, it has been decided to place equal emphasis on enrolment as well as retention, even though this has meant putting back the target of universalization of elementary education to 1995 and attempting to achieve universalization of primary education only by the year 1990.

The policy categorically defines the essential threshold of facilities in primary schools, assuring that every school will be provided with at least two rooms and two teachers — one of whom will be a woman — and the essential learning materials.

In respect of vocational education, it has been decided to proceed with it in the secondary stream, step by step with due deliberation and to ensure its quality, relevance and complementarity with the signals of the employment market. A new thrust has, however, been provided by an undertaking to proceed towards progressive vocationalization of tertiary education to improve the employability of the college and university graduates.

Lifelong and continuing education has received particular attention for several compelling reasons, but particularly because without it, neither the programme of Adult Education nor of Universalization of Primary Education would acquire the requisite dynamism. Provision of facilities for this purpose, is also considered a pre-requisite for keeping abreast with continuous changes in the realm of science and technology and facilitating horizontal and vertical mobility.

Departing from the usual approach to autonomy, it is now proposed to promote it as a means of encouraging innovation, creating discrete institutional identities and facilitating the enforcement of accountability. It has been proposed specifically that the present system of affiliation of colleges with universities will be phased out and autonomous colleges will be established instead through the provision of appropriate incentives for such development.

The new policy would take effective steps to promote decentralization of school education. District Boards of Education along with District Institutes of Education and Training of Teachers will be set up in order to encourage micro-planning, rationalize personnel

management and deployment policies, strengthen the teacher training system and replace the existing system of bureaucratic inspection and supervision by participant observation and peer group evaluation. The proposed decentralization will, besides linking schools with the communities, also provide the objective conditions for examination reforms which are considered crucial for the desired transformation of the education system. Realizing that, to a great extent, the whole process and the objectives of education are being perverted and subordinated to the acquisition of degrees, through whatever means possible, it has been decided to change the culture of education by delinking degrees and jobs in as many areas of employment as is possible without compromising professional standards in critical areas.

Planning, management, funding and networking for Technical Education is sought to be organized more effectively through the All India Council of Technical Education which will be given a statutory status and will, together with professional societies be required to monitor and evaluate programmes, keep a watch on the maintenance of standards and exercise due vigilance to prevent the commercialization of education.

Taking a leaf out of the experience of Agricultural Universities, all institutions concerned with higher education, particularly pertaining to technology, will have to assume the responsibilities for teaching, research and extension. Research and development will receive much greater attention hereafter not only to keep up with the rest of the world but also because these activities broaden the intellectual and cultural environment of educational institutions. It has also been decided that special institutions will be set up by the Union Government to cater to meritorious students at the secondary level and also, at higher levels, to lay down new standards of academic excellence in critical areas of science and technology.

Aspects of the New Education Policy presented in the above paragraphs do not present a comprehensive summary of the policy, nor do these reflect either the priorities or the temporal phasing of the educational reorientation envisaged in the new policy. The general idea is to provide a sample of the postulates, and the objectives of the new policy so as to underline the magnitude of the tasks of policy implementation.

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The proof of the pudding, however, is in the eating. The effectiveness of the new policy will be reflected ultimately in implementation. For this, much larger resource inputs than have been available hitherto, will be necessary. The policy document assures that these will be forthcoming. It, in fact, underlines that from the viewpoint of long-term goals of national development, allowing the continuation of the present quantitative and qualitative trends will be far more expensive than the cost of squeezing out resources from all possible sources to impart dynamism to educational development.

In order to ensure successful implementation of the new policy, UNESCO's resources and support were utilized to organize an international seminar in June 1986. The seminar was charged with preparation of implementation strategies for the new education policy. These strategies will, in due course, lead to action plans, programmes and projects.

Jndian education has its lights and shades. During the last 25 years there has been a tremendous explosion in enrolment at all levels of education right from the primary to the post-graduate levels but at the same time such exponential growth has led to a large number of problems specially related to the quality of education.

During this period educational institutions in India have increased threefold from 230,000 to 690,000. There have been significant increases in the numbers of middle schools and pre-degree colleges for general education.

The total student population increased from 28 million in 1950-1951 to 114 million in 1982-1983, yielding a growth rate of 4.5 per cent per annum. During this period, girls' enrolment increased at the compound growth rate of 5.5 per cent while the comparable rate in the case of the boys was 3.9 per cent per annum. However, due to the initial disparity in the enrolment of boys and girls, the absolute magnitude of girls' enrolment is still less than the boys.

As the programme of universalization of elementary education includes education up to Class VIII, it is important to take into account the progress made in this sector. First of all, the number of students in the middle stage has increased from 2.6 million in 1950-1951 to 14.7 million in 1982-1983 (5.5 per cent per annum). Although the rate of growth in girls' enrolment has been much faster (8.6 per cent) only 30.6 per cent of girls in the relevant age-specific population have been so far enrolled in this stage. The percentage in the case of boys has been 56.3 per cent.

DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION IN INDIA



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The position of the progress achieved in the case of secondary/higher secondary enrolment is more difficult to describe in simple terms because the pattern of education at this level underwent a structural change following the Education Policy (1968). However, as far as high/higher secondary (Classes IX-X/XI) is concerned, the total enrolment increased from 1.22 million in 1950-1951 to 10 million in 1983-1984, yielding a growth rate of 7.8 per cent per annum. The sex-wise share at this level of education also underwent a substantial change during this period. The girls' enrolment registered a faster rate of growth (10.1 per cent) during the period.

The growth in higher education enrolment presents an interesting picture. During the 1950-1982 period it increased at the rate of 9.7 per cent per annum. However the decade-wise enrolment indicates that while in the 1950s and the 1960s, the enrolment increased at the rate of 12.4 and 13.4 per cent per annum respectively, it increased only at the rate of 3.8 per cent in the 1970s. Thus, it seems that the rate of expansion at this level is beginning to slow down.

Higher education enrolments have increased in almost all faculties and specializations. The courses of medicine (39.1 per cent) and engineering, technical and architecture (36.6 per cent) constitute the substantial share in the growth of the professional education. While the growth in enrolment in teacher training courses has been 2.6 per cent per annum; girls' enrolment in teacher training grew much faster, at the rate of 5.1 per cent per annum.

Although enrolment of girls in engineering courses increased 17 times from 1960 to 1983, its absolute magnitude continued to remain about 5 per cent of the male enrolment.

In addition, several states have registered impressive increases in enrolments in polytechnics, and technical and industrial arts and crafts schools. States like Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh have leading figures of enrolment in polytechnics. As compared to this, Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Jammu and Kashmir, Maharashtra, and Punjab have registered tremendous improvement in enrolments in technical and industrial arts and crafts schools.

There has been a substantial increase in the enrolment at all levels of education and in almost all the faculties. However, it seems that additional enrolment at the primary education level has now to

come from the social strata which is not in a position to take advantage of expanding educational opportunities, indicated among other things by the deceleration in the growth of enrolment in the last decade.

Every year the Indian Universities award 500,000 to 600,000 degrees and the medical and engineering institutions award 15,000 to 20,000 degrees to doctors and engineers. Tens of thousand of doctors and scientists and technicians, well trained, are working in developing and developed countries throughout the world.

The expenditure incurred on education is Rs. 60,000* million per annum and as Pandit Nehru said, since 1947 the quantitative expansion of education in this country has been one of the greatest revolutions the world has ever witnessed. In spite of this there is, unfortunately, 60 per cent illiteracy. A very low percentage of the Gross National Product is spent on education. Whereas 7.6 per cent was spent in the first five-year plan after independence, it went down to 2.6 per cent in the Sixth Five Year Plan. Thanks to the keen interest taken by the present Prime Minister, this percentage, because of the realization that human resource development is the greatest need of this country, is likely to go up to 4 per cent. It is still far from what is obtained in a majority of the developed and developing countries.

A status paper on the present position of education was brought out by the Ministry of Education and for the first time in the history of education in the country it devoted itself at length to the shortcomings in the field of education. The paper was widely debated throughout the length and breadth of the country in many forums and out of it has emerged the national policy on education (1986).

Many things found in this policy were there in the 1968 policy resolution on education which Parliament passed 20 years ago, or in the Kothari Commissions Report which is also a landmark in the history of education. We have implemented a few things which suited us and did not implement many things which would have made a good impact.

* Approximately 12.5 Indian Rupees (Rs) = One US dollar

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Policy documents prepared in the last 25 years have been extremely forward looking and if they had been implemented *in toto* education in India would have been of a much better quality; it would have achieved the targets of 100 per cent compulsory primary education; and the literacy rate would have been twice what it is today.

Due to several handicaps such as the vastness of the programme envisaged and the large numbers to be covered in the programme, together with the constraints of insufficient trained manpower and inadequate funds, the implementation of the recommendations in the policy documents could not be undertaken. One good trend which has emerged during the preparation of the national education policy, 1986, is the realization that unless implementation strategies are worked out in fair detail and financial inputs required for the purpose are assessed and provided, it will become an exercise in futility. Though one wishes that implementation of the recommendations made in the education policy should be adequately provided for, there is a lurking anxiety that financial constraints and inadequate manpower training, coupled with lack of quick decision making and necessary decentralization, may hinder the future of educational development in India as envisaged by the Government and the people.

Policy Resolution of 1968 and the Commissions and the Committees appointed thereafter, as well as the Kothari Education Commission (1964-1966) aimed at promoting national progress, creating a sense of common citizenship and culture and strengthening national integration. It laid stress on the need for a radical reconstruction of education to improve its quality at all stages, much greater attention to science and technology, cultivation of moral values and a closer relation between education and the life of the people.

The most notable development following the policy of 1968 has been the acceptance of a common structure of education throughout the country and the introduction of the 10+2+3 system by most of the States. In relation to school curricula, in addition to laying down a common system of studies for boys and girls, science and mathematics were incorporated as compulsory subjects and work experience assigned a place of importance to bring greater relevance in education. The universities and the colleges were encouraged to

restructure their courses at the undergraduate level the Centres of Advanced Studies and the Department of Special Assistance were set up for post-graduate education and research.

While these achievements are impressive by themselves, the fact remains that the tempo and magnitude of development could not keep pace with the qualitative objectives as also with the quantitative requirements of expansion commensurate with population growth. As a result, problems of access, quality, quantity, utility and financial outlay, accumulated over the years, have now assumed massive proportions and utmost urgency. With a traditional society suddenly faced with the need to adapt to exponential changes and challenges accentuated by the emergence of generations whose aspirations signify a qualitative departure from the past, education in India stands at the crossroads today. Neither normal linear expansion nor the normal pace and nature of improvement can meet the needs of the situation.

There has been a definite emphasis on the human being who is seen as a great asset and a precious national resource which needs to be cherished, nurtured and helped to grow with dynamism and creativity.

This requires education which is a complex growth process to be planned meticulously and executed with great sensitivity. Social and political life in India is suffering from the erosion of long accepted values. The goals of secularism, socialism, democracy and professional ethics are coming under increasing strain.

In addition, the rural areas with power infrastructure and inadequate social services will not attract trained and educated youth unless rural-urban disparities are reduced and adequate employment is made available.

Every attempt is being made to significantly reduce population growth in the coming years. The largest single factor that could help to achieve this is the spread of literacy and education among rural women.

Education has been brought on the concurrent list by Parliament which means, the State and the Centre share the responsibility and the distribution of powers and functions in education. There has been a lot of debate on this issue, but it has remained. It is envisaged that the organizational structure of education at the school

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level and the collegiate level should be the same for the entire country i.e., 10+2+3. Ten years of schooling, two years of higher secondary and three years at the tertiary level. Though 10+2+3 was suggested 15 years ago, many States have not introduced it. There are as many diverse curricula in this country as there are languages and therefore the national policy envisages that there should be a common core curricula for all schools at the school level up to the +2 stage which would cover about 70 to 80 per cent, which percentage would differ from level to level. At the primary it would be more common with a built-in elasticity of 25 per cent or so to take care of regional differences.

The greatest concern of educational planners has been that this great quantitative expansion of education has had an adverse impact on the quality of education and therefore great stress is laid in the policy paper on raising the quality of education. Three problems are before us — equality, equity and quality. In a democratic society it is difficult to refuse admission to schools or colleges to a large number of first generation learners who started going to school after independence, and whose aspirations have to be met. But it is realized more and more that quality does not mean the same programme of education for all. It means opportunity suitable to the individual which meets the needs of development. Therefore it has been stressed to delink degrees from jobs. For certain jobs like engineering and medicine, one has to have a qualification and one has to have the requisite training. But for many jobs one does not need to be a graduate or have a Master's degree. In fact the Union Public Service Commission has laid down that applicants must hold a degree as a qualification even for clerical or secretarial jobs or middle level jobs because it was afraid that when thousands of applications are received, it would be a very time consuming affair to find a yardstick to select people for the job if no qualification was required. On the other side of the spectrum what do you find? A very strange phenomenon. If you look at the educational programmes and the percentage of students taking advantage at different levels of education you find that in one of the more backward states, out of every 100 graduates, about 15 per cent go in for Master's degrees whereas in the most forward looking states not more than 5 per cent of the graduates go in for post-graduate work. The reason is that unemployable graduates are being turned out who feel that if

they do their Master's degree while they are waiting, they will have a greater employability. In fact they become less employable because their aspirations have no relationship to their capabilities or to the jobs which are available. Therefore it would be a good thing to delink degrees from jobs.

The second thing which the national system envisages, is autonomy and freedom in education coupled with accountability. When things fail, government begins to feel that it must take over and in the process the failure becomes greater than ever. The one enterprise which the 'one who pays' must not control, is education. But it takes a long time for such notions to filter down through the bureaucracy and there really is a very strong bureaucracy. The direction in which we should go is that every college should be autonomous, should be able to innovate and experiment within the framework of the university, to run its own courses, to change its courses, to use new methodologies, to undertake research which it feels worthwhile and in the process develop strong institutions, pace-setting institutions which would then play a leadership role in taking other institutions ahead. Demand and supply, and the prestige of the institution depends upon the level of accountability. After two or three years people settle down and begin to evaluate. This is a better yardstick than evaluation from the top.

It is also thought that there should be a common, objective examination available. Anyone may walk in voluntarily and take a test in different subjects so that this whole paraphernalia of examination, which has practically become an unmanageable affair, should be replaced by internal assessment and provide facilities for people who have gone through the non-formal channel of education, who have learnt by themselves and who can still offer themselves for test for certification.

The Indira Gandhi Open University has been set up with a view that the pressure of rising numbers in the formal university systems, will be reduced by the non-formal system. But there is a danger that people may always prefer the normal system. The non-formal system would then become a second class system. So it is suggested that transfer should be allowed from the non-formal system to the formal system and vice versa, at any stage of education so that both will have to maintain standards. A bridge course should be provided in the universities and colleges to enable people to take

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the subjects of their choice which are useful to them. It would also enable institutions to bring greater relevance to education. The bane in the system has been the inability of education to keep pace with the tremendous speed with which the quantum of knowledge increases. It suffers from obsolescence before we enter into a college and come out of the college. It is therefore, necessary that much greater attention is paid to providing the skills and training to lay strong foundations for learning at all levels.

Another problem of education is that of girls' education at the primary level. Whereas there is a 90 per cent enrolment level at the primary schools for boys, for girls it is only about 68 per cent and therefore, the entire problem is of girls' education. It requires a different, pragmatic approach and different handling. In rural families the girls are required to look after younger brothers and sisters sitting at home and are unable to attend school. The new Education Policy (NPE) has suggested a number of positive steps for improving the attendance of girls.

The NPE gives the highest priority to universalization of elementary education (UEE) emphasizing (i) the enrolment and universal relation of children up to 14+ years of age; and (ii) a substantial improvement in the quality of education.

The main feature of the implementation strategy will be area-specific and population-specific planning. Greater attention will be paid to educationally backward states. UEE can come about only if all agencies — the people, political parties and teachers are all involved at the planning and implementation stage.

There will be an all out effort called 'Operation Blackboard' to provide the minimum needs by way of furniture and equipment and library books, for the quality and environment conducive to learning.

Another important thrust has been on vocationalization of education. There is unemployment amongst the educated because of an inability to meet the targets which were laid down at different plan periods. The GNP did not increase the way it had been anticipated when the plans were made. The expected number of jobs were not created and therefore there are many educated unemployed. This has required a re-thinking at the tertiary level of education and the policy statement says, that vocationalization of education will be

taken up very seriously. It has envisaged that 10 per cent of all students coming out of the SSC level. Class X will be in the vocational stream. There was a similar idea in 1968, but it did not succeed because of resource constraints and because there was no elasticity of approach, for a pragmatic approach where everybody naturally would look to a university degree and study towards a Bachelor's degree in Engineering, rather than get a Diploma in Engineering. But if a diploma level engineering graduate, after two years of experience is eligible to study for a Bachelor's degree or a University degree, that person does not feel that the doors are closed for further education for him. This is the change in the approach of the national policy.

The non-formal system of education has started in right earnest. Many states have open universities, but correspondence education alone is not the answer, and so there is now much greater use of the different communication media. The author began a one-hour programme on television for collegiate students to enrich their experience in science and technology as well as general awareness. The response was tremendous. In one instance, after showing how to prepare models, more than 10,000 letters were received saying that this was the type of telecast they wanted and why could they not have a tele-series of lessons?

A very important suggestion made in the national policy is that all science and research laboratories, as far as possible, should be set up within the university framework. This was also the recommendation made in 1968, but from 1968 until now most of the developments in science have taken place outside the university field. All the money is spent in setting up new institutions outside the university. The result is that university levels have gone down as far as equipment and consultancies are concerned. Now it has been realized that the best research and the best return for research is found in the universities and therefore a special recommendation was made that as far as possible, and within the framework obtaining today, greater support should be given for specialized research, fundamental as well as applied, in the universities in fields such as biotechnology, genetic engineering and others. If this goes through, it will have a strong impact on raising the level of university education.

The co-ordination at different levels, between the industries, the users, the trade, commerce, commercial institutions, the

institutions of learning, the academic institutions, have been stressed in the policy paper and I am sure that we may be able, if we make an effort, to get the maximum benefit for both the users and the academic institutions. There is advantage with such collaboration. There are 1,600 vocational institutions in this country out of which more than half are situated in Tamil Nadu. Therefore, this call for vocationalization is very important for the other States because unless middle level technical people are trained, productivity will be no higher than it is today. Production in many sectors is far below the average obtained in other developing countries and therefore there is a great scope for change.

It is also envisaged that there should be an Indian Education Service because the human resource development through education is a very complex task. Some of the States are not in favour because they are afraid that the centre would have a larger say in the placement of the personnel. This should not be so because, in the past there was an Indian Education Service which trained people in education to understand the complexities of education — the largest enterprise the world has. However it is one which does not have the advantage of management theories and practices as well as the advantage of pragmatic planning and the ability to change direction mid-course if the need arises.

It is very interesting to know that there are very few universities in this country where there is a course in management of education and it is another thrust to be taken up during the coming years. The top 10 per cent of the students and researchers can compare favourably with the best in the world, but it is the average students who do not compare as favourably as they should and that is where the greatest stress should be laid. Many schemes are now envisaged for the education of the gifted who have been neglected because it was always thought that quality and democracy did not go together. This has been a misnomer and now we are trying to correct the course.

A national policy of education has been laid out. The policies could stand the test of time in any country of the world but it is really implementation strategies and the political will with which they are implemented that will make or mar the future of education in the next 20 years.

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Over the past year, a more favourable situation for educational development has appeared in China, in which satisfactory achievements have been accomplished under the guidance of the Decision on Reform of China's Educational Structure made by the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party (CPC) in May 1985.

The Decision, which is an important document in itself, should be seen as integrated, in one way or another, with two other decisions made by the CPC Central Committee, namely, the Decision on Reform of China's Economic Structure and the Decision on Reform of China's Scientific and Technological Structure. As Deng Xiaoping said, 'All these proposed reforms share one overall aim, that is, to enable our country to get rid of poverty and head for prosperity, to eradicate backwardness and advance toward modernization, and eventually build up a distinctive socialism with Chinese features.'¹ This statement of Deng's also affirms the strategic significance of education in the overall context of national development. Practice strongly demonstrates that progress in science and technology, and even the implementation of the modernization programme, depend heavily upon the preparation of qualified personnel. Therefore, it is safe to say that education is one of the fundamental undertakings of the nation, and consequently, attention to education should be one of our firm and persistent strategies.

This wise Decision made by the CPC Central Committee has, indeed greatly helped to increase the awareness of the importance of education among local

EDUCATIONAL RE- FORM DRIVE FOR PROMOTION OF THE FUNDAMENTAL UNDERTAKING OF THE NATION



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Party organizations and government departments at every level. At the publication of the Decision, the authorities at the provincial level held special meetings to discuss how to put the Decision into effect, trying to draw up plans and work out specific measures for educational and school improvement in their own localities.

At such meetings, some of the leading figures identified reconception in four dimensions they thought desirable for the present educational reform drive. (1) Leaders at all levels should cast away the outdated view that education is but a sectional endeavour and develop a knowledge of education as an undertaking of overall importance; (2) Economic workers should try to get rid of the 'pure economic perspective' and develop the awareness that both economic progress and scientific and technological evolution rely on education; (3) Educational workers should do away with the closed 'education for education's sake' mentality and develop an understanding of the necessity for education to serve the socialist construction and the modernization process of the country; and (4) The general public should abandon the benighted and outworn ideas that belittle knowledge and intellectual workers and develop insight into the values of knowledge and intellectuals as well as a willingness to help and support education.

It is in such a context that education in China has been given the more visible prominence it deserves. The Chairman of the country issued an explicit order last year that 10 September be the Teachers' Day in this nation. Now the People's Republic is seeing an ever increasing commitment to education and respect for the teaching profession, which in turn has resulted in not a few welcome happenings and changes in the education front.

Restructuring: the starting point

The present educational reform drive in China starts with changes in the existing structure of education. That is because:

1. The present reform of the existing economic structure, which aims primarily at urban enterprises, will inevitably have impact on education; on the other hand, economic and social progress relies on education. As Deng Xiaoping rightly pointed out, the most significant component of the Decision on Reform of China's Economic Structure is

Article 9, which makes clear to the whole nation the necessity for knowledge and skilled people. The educational reform campaign is not likely to go far unless it co-ordinates and positively interacts with the reform of the economic structure and the structure of science and technology in the country. If our modernization drive is an ambitious eagle, so to speak, education and science/technology would be its two wings. Without strong wings, it is impossible for the eagle to fly far and high.

2. Some of the perceived problems in our education which ask for immediate solution have much to do with the defects in the existing education structure of this country. These include the backwardness of elementary education; the undesired unidimensional feature of secondary education, its vocational/technical aspect being meagre and weak; the misbalance between tiers, disciplines and specialties now available at the tertiary level, and so on. Admittedly, many of the problems could be attributed to misconception of education. But very often, these misconceptions are found to correlate with the defects in the structure of education. Take for an example the sad fact that our education awkwardly co-ordinates its development with the economic and social progress in this land and thus fails to meet the needs of the latter effectively, which is, of course, a problem arising from some misconceptions of education. But one would not hesitate to conclude, at a second look, that it is also a negative product of the practice of the 'sectional ownership' of schools. Therefore, without a fundamental change in the existing structure of education, to update conceptions of education would, it seems, turn out to be just lip-service.

Since the publication of the Decision, wide progress has been witnessed in education in China. The implementation of compulsory education has been speeded up and school improvement achieved in various parts of the country ever since the local authorities began to bear the responsibility for elementary education, which is now being administered by departments at different levels. Vocational/technical education has received closer attention, resulting in an obvious increase in enrolment. In 1985, the national enrolment in vocational

schools of various types (including specialized secondary school, technical secondary school, agriculture and vocational senior high schools) amounted to 36 per cent of the total at the senior secondary level. The number of agriculture and vocational senior high schools has been increasing even faster. Local governments at different levels wisely devoted more funds to education in 1985. In Beijing, the allocation of the municipal revenues for education amounted to 14,000,000,000 yuan* over the last five years, 72.8 per cent higher than that in the Fifth Five-Year Plan Period (1975-1980), the average annual increase rate being 15 per cent, much higher than that of the municipal revenues which was 4.2 per cent.² The government of Hunan Province has decided to re-examine their financial budget and the expenditure distribution in capital construction so as to extract as many resources as possible for developing education. The above are but a few examples to show that education in China has achieved much vitality since the restructuring drive started. And that is why it is thought justified to attempt to introduce a series of beneficial changes in education through restructuring.

Reformulation of the educational policy in the new situation.

The fundamental aim of educational reform in China is to enhance the nation and produce as many qualified people as possible. What are qualified people? An explicit definition could be found in the Decision. They are:

... persons of moral integrity with lofty ideals, well educated and disciplined, having an ardent love for the socialist motherland, and working with dedication for the prosperity of the country and people. They should constantly pursue new knowledge and cultivate the scientific spirit of seeking truth from facts, thinking independently and daring to make innovations.

These are general criteria developed from the perspective of effective participation in the modernization process, which should be expected to appeal to the entire people of the nation, but not be supposed to substitute for the goals of primary, secondary or tertiary education. It is on the basis of these criteria that such goals should be articulated. In other words, a Marxist educational policy should be formulated for developing education in China.

* Approximately 3.20 Chinese yuan = One US Dollar

In the report on the Seventh Five-Year Plan, delivered at the 4th Session of the 3rd National People's Congress (NPC) convened in 1985, Premier Zhao Ziyang indicates:

Schools of all types at different levels are required to carry out the policy of all-round development — moral, intellectual, physical and aesthetical, and rationally strengthen labour education in light of their own characteristics. They should persistently give top priority on improvement of educational quality and preparation of qualified people.

This new formulation of our educational policy, which introduces two more domains (aesthetic and labour education) into that formulated by Mao Zedong, namely, 'to enable the educated to develop morally, intellectually and physically, and become educated workers with socialist consciousness', reflects the requirements of the new era and the socialist modernization campaign. Over the last few years, China has witnessed a persistent drive for developing both materialist and spiritual civilizations, accompanied by a wide range of activities to promote the general mood of the society. It is particularly important and urgent to introduce the concept of aesthetic education and give it as much attention as the moral, intellectual and physical domains. Development of aesthetic education is a necessity in building the socialist spiritual civilization and a compelling necessity in training and preparing the new socialist generation. Another important task confronting the country is to properly strengthen labour education as part of school education in this new period.

Deng Xiaoping said as early as 1978: 'In order to prepare qualified people for the socialist construction, it is essential for us to seriously study and find out ways to implement more effectively the policy of integrating education with productive labour in the new conditions.

'The rapid economic and technological progress demands the rapid improvement of educational quality and educational efficiency. It also demands for continuous development in the what's and how's of integration of education with productive labour', he added. Premier Zhao Ziyang's formulation embodies the spirit of the above statement of Deng's.

The policy of all-round development — moral, intellectual, physical and aesthetic, and the rational strengthening of labour education points to the promising availability of educational excellence and qualified personnel. It is true that the existing educational programmes, syllabuses and teaching materials in this country have contributed positively to educational improvement since the downfall of the 'gang of four', and it is the main aspect. But on the other hand, some of the instructional requirements have proved to be too much of a challenge to most of the schools and over demanding for the students; that much too little time is allocated to literature, history, arts and labour/technical courses hinders not only the cultivation of patriotism and development of moral integrity and aesthetic appreciation in students, but also the development of a positive attitude towards work and the ability to take care of oneself. Besides, the tightly centralized control and inflexibility of the curriculum, educational content and school schedules functions as a check to adaptive education, cognitive growth and competence development. With the formulation of a new educational policy, the State Commission for Education is making active efforts to revise the programmes for elementary and secondary education. Li Peng, Vice Premier and Minister of the State Commission for Education said some time ago, that elementary and secondary schools are required,

... at present to reduce effectively the workload of their students, and to prevent or correct the erroneous tendency to concentrate on increasing the proportion of their students admitted to schools at a higher level. It is essential, in elementary and secondary education, to carry out the policy of all-round development — moral, intellectual, physical and aesthetic, and the proper exercise of labour education, so as to provide young children and teenagers a somewhat comprehensive basic education. It is important, while trying to improve education in Chinese, math and other more academic subjects, to promote the disadvantaged ones such as music, physical education and fine arts, in order to lay a sound foundation for the all-round development of elementary and secondary school students in enculturation and physical and mental health.³

Acting on this suggestion, in 1985 the State Commission for Education allocated 250,000 yuan to schools in 23 provinces experienced in implementing the policy as an assistance in purchasing facilities necessary for artistic education.

In carrying out the policy, the following are to be stressed:

1. Effective interpretation and communication of the policy on the basis of Marx's theory on the all-round development of man and in accordance with the guiding principle that education should be geared to the needs of modernization, the world and the future.

2. Introduction of sound educational conceptions and desirable orientation of schooling. In addition to remedies directed at concentration on cognitive growth at the expense of moral, physical and aesthetic education, elaborative and powerful clarification and persuasion is needed, at present, to turn around the advocacy that since technical/vocational education is to be vigorously developed, and since the concept of division is to be introduced at three different levels, general high schools should aim primarily at admission of their students into schools at a higher level. This, in effect, is a negation of the dual function of basic education. An effective way to facilitate the implementation of the policy and the expected consciousness of leaders of departments and institutions of education, is field investigation — investigations into performance of high school leavers now, either at jobs or at schools at a higher level, and systematic examinations of at what they are good at and what they are not. Empirical evidence might be helpful in developing an appreciation of the relevant rationale, reorienting educational thinking and developing and understanding of the direction of the reform drive.

3. The successful implementation of the policy depends not only on efforts made by departments and institutions of education at all levels, but also on the positive contribution of the whole nation and the whole society. A synthetic solution is required to the bias toward admission into schools at a higher level, for instance. That is, in addition to the ideological approach, a lot of policy-making is needed.

Sound education starts at childhood. The introduction of compulsory education, a hallmark of modern civilization, is a requisite for developing intelligence and training the required personnel in

all nations of the world. Such training is unlikely to be completed in too short a period of time due to the well-known fact that education is an undertaking characterized by its long cycle. It has to begin at the childhood level, which implies the necessity of a sound elementary education, before it is shifted up the educational ladder. That is why leaders with wide vision, without exception, attach great importance to the promotion of basic education. A sound basic education, on which the prosperity of the nation depends, underlies the preparation of well educated workers in all fields who are adaptive to the needs of economic and social progress in China in the 1990s and even in the coming century. It is impossible, without putting an end to the backwardness of basic education in the country, to accomplish the socialist modernization programme.

The Law for Compulsory Education of the People's Republic of China, formulated on the suggestion made in the Decision of introducing nine-year compulsory education step by step, put into effect in 1986, implies that the introduction of compulsory education in China is now legitimized and hence ensured legislatively. The pressing task now confronting government and the department of educational administration at every level is to make the greatest and most substantial efforts to facilitate the implementation of the Law. The State Commission for Education and the Committee for Education, Science, Culture and Health of NPC jointly convened a conference on the implementation of the Law, after which, they created, together with the State Commission for Planning and Ministry of Finance, several investigation teams to look into specific schemes for and major problems in implementing the Law at the local levels.

The promulgation and implementation of the Law will certainly usher the development of basic education into a new historic phase. It is exciting to note that the thorough restructuring of the rural economy has helped substantially stimulate the peasants' enthusiasm for production. From their experiences of 'becoming rich through production,' the peasants have come to see the importance of education. A survey of household economies with a sample of 30,000 peasant families provided the following figures in terms of average annual income per capita: 284 yuan for illiterate households, 385 for the ones with elementary schooling, 466 for the ones with junior secondary schooling, 556 for the ones with senior secondary schooling, and 756 for the ones with tertiary education.⁴ The above

data convincingly shows that agricultural modernization rests on universalization of education and the advance of science and technology. The legitimization of the introduction of nine-year compulsory education will undoubtedly contribute enormously to the prosperity of science and culture and to the development of required manpower. The compulsory education will, as expected, prepare the new generation well for further learning, and perhaps more so for employment, as the concept of junior secondary education, employed in the Law, refers to both general education and technical/vocational education.

Since China is a country with a population of over 1,040 million, and economic and cultural development is uneven at the regional level, it is only wise of the CPC Central Committee to emphasize that it is desirable, in implementing the nine-year compulsory education, to do the right thing in the right place, instead of following a single pattern all over the country or pursuing rapid increase regardless of possibility or feasibility. The Decision has grouped different places in China roughly into three categories, but in fact, differences in economic and cultural development are highly visible, in many cases, at the sub-provincial level. Consequently, it is vital for authorities from the provincial level to the county level to distinguish the places under their control, and help draw particular schemes adaptive to each of them. Nine-year compulsory education is to be implemented in two phases. Universalization of junior secondary education should be attempted only when the pre-determined qualitative and quantitative goals for universalizing elementary education have been achieved, as now is the case of the urban areas and many of the rural areas of the country. The State Commission for Education indicates that in places where elementary education remains to be universalized, it is undesirable to expand secondary schooling prematurely, especially that kind of junior secondary school which in fact is an elementary school but with first-year junior secondary classes attached, for it would distract the resources for elementary schooling, and thus hinder the normal progress of basic education.

A possible guarantee for the implementation of the nine-year compulsory education is to increase funding for operation and capital construction where necessary so as to improve the conditions of schooling gradually. The Law stipulates, "The state appropri-

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ations for implementing the compulsory education should increase at a rate faster than the increase in its regular revenues, and the average expenditure on education per capita should also increase steadily." It also stipulates, "People's governments at the local levels may levy, in light of the relevant stipulations made by the State Council, an extra tax for educational operation both in urban and rural areas, which should be used primarily to implement compulsory education." The above two financial increases are to be ensured by the central government revenues on the one hand, and by the local government revenues on the other. They are also dependent on non-governmental sources.

Development of the cohort of school teachers is the key link in the successful implementation of nine-year compulsory education. Much remains to be done about the quantity and especially the quality of the existing cohort of school teachers in China. That is why the state is now committed to the building of a competent contingent of school teachers, which it identifies as a variable of strategic significance in its attempt to universalize nine-year compulsory education. It is recommended that various strategies and measures should be adopted for training and improving in-service teachers; while much is already being done to strengthen pre-service teacher education. Practice shows that correspondence and TV programmes could be effective vehicles for in-service training. In this connection, preparation is now under way so that a special educational channel will be available by October 1986, through TV satellite, for the purpose of offering training to elementary and secondary school teachers. Also, the local authorities are advised to follow the example of the governmental agencies at the central level, who began last year the practice of organizing mobile training squads to offer on-the-spot training in various places of the country. This should become a rule which must be adhered to for a long time to come, it has been decided. To sum up, the goal is, (with the above-mentioned strategies and measures in addition to the promotion of the economic status of school teachers) to develop a mighty contingent of qualified and dedicated schoolteachers, well-proportioned in disciplines, in 10 or 15 more years.

Thanks to the attention to education on the part of government at both central and local levels, new progress has been witnessed in the attempt to universalize elementary education. The

national enrolment rate at the elementary level has now jumped to 95.5 per cent, and the annual retention rate to 96.7 per cent. By October 1985, 731 counties, or one-third of the total of the country, had been identified as counties where elementary education is universalized.⁵

Desirable changes in the labour system

A major component of the Decision is the emphasis on restructuring secondary education and vigorously developing vocational/technical education. The CPC Central Committee puts a high priority on this domain, because the structure of secondary education has been rather unidimensional, in which the technical/vocational education is a weak link. It has greatly limited its capability to respond to the needs of the socialist modernization drive. This awkwardness may be attributed to, among other things, the deep-rooted worn-out concept which belittles technical/vocational education. What is more, during the 'cultural revolution' the theory of 'two systems of labour, two systems of education' developed by Liu Shaoqi, the former Chairman of the country, was bitterly criticized and repudiated. The subsequent result is the popular keenness on running and attending academic senior high schools, which is something like 'thousands upon thousands of horses and soldiers competing for access to a single-log bridge.' Fortunately, great efforts have been made since 1978 to readjust the structure of secondary education and to promote technical/vocational education. The State Council approved, and transmitted throughout the country, its Report on Restructuring Secondary Education submitted by the former Ministry of Education and the State Bureau of Labour based on pilot experiments already done. Thereafter, technical/vocational education has achieved increasing vitality. The 1985 statistics regarding enrolment in secondary vocational and technical schools might be illustrative: 1,570,000 in secondary specialized schools (including secondary teacher training schools), 750,000 in secondary technical schools, and 1,843,000 in vocational senior high schools, which are respectively 26.4 per cent, 10.3 per cent and 480 per cent higher than in 1980. Technical/vocational education has also gained increasing credibility in recent years. A few years ago, vocational schools often suffered from lack of applicants, but now things are quite different. In some instances, the number of applicants for

vocational schools could be several times or dozens of times larger than that of the projected enrolments.

What also counts in developing technical/vocational education is the simultaneous reform of the labour system with the restructuring of education. For one thing, job-seekers should go through an all-round examination — moral, intellectual and physical, and be recruited on the basis of competition. It implies for the labour reserve a set of strict political, educational and particularly technical requirements, which would help improve the quality of the work-force of the country on the one hand, and help create a broader future for technical/vocational education on the other. What is more important, it implies, as Deng Xiaoping has explained, that the educational policy made by Mao Zedong would be carried out in all aspects of the larger society.

In recent years, reform of the labour system has been started in some of the big and middle-sized cities, with rather visible effects. For example, in Shashi in Hube Province, a city in which light and textile industries are the major industries, and in which economy has been developing rapidly, the employment rate in the city was as high as 99.5 per cent in 1983. The negative aspect of the employment boom was that the quality of the work-force was reduced by recruiting a large number of young people without any vocational or technical training. In this context, the municipal government made it clear in its strategic scheme for economic development in 1983 that by 1990, the proportion of workers with tertiary education in the work-force in the city should climb from 2.8 per cent to 8–10 per cent, and that of workers with secondary education from 20.8 per cent to 50 per cent. To achieve the goal mentioned above, the government, in paying close attention to technical/vocational education, sent an official communication to all the institutions in the city, emphasizing that the principle of 'enrolment before employment, and training before employment' should be observed, and that no others but graduates from vocational or technical schools should be employed. Now the employment rate of graduates from vocational and technical schools is approaching 100 per cent. Similar decisions have been made in Beijing, Tianjin, and other cities. In Tianjin for instance, the employment rate of graduates from vocational senior high schools jumped from 70 per cent in 1982 to 92 per cent in 1983, to 98 per cent in 1984, and to 98.6 per cent in 1985. This has

contributed greatly to the improvement of the quality of the workforce.

The progress in education in the rural areas in which 80 per cent of the population resides has great implications for the development of education in the country. We hold that the fundamental source of availability of required personnel in the rural areas is the development of technical/vocational education in these areas. Recent years have seen efforts made in various places of the country to find new ways to develop technical/vocational education in the rural areas. Some of the widely shared experiences in this field may be summed up as follows: (1) the establishment of one or two effective schools of this type at the county level as the model and base for developing technical/vocational education; (2) diversification of the curriculum, which, instead of being farming-oriented, should embrace a variety of disciplines, but well-proportioned in the specialities offered; (3) reform or enrolment and job assignments for graduates from vocational and technical schools in such a way that they go back to work in the rural areas; (4) increasing the relevance of instructional content, to scientific experiments and technology dissemination in the rural areas, for instance; and (5) accessibility of technical/vocational school facilities to technical/vocational education for adults. In terms of technical/vocational education for adults, the organization of instruction should be adaptive to the restructuring of the economy in the rural areas and be sensitive to the peasants' strong desire to become rich.

A national conference on technical/vocational education, convened in July 1986 had the following major themes: (1) to further develop the understanding of the necessity and urgency of developing technical/vocational education; (2) to define the general policy and goals for technical/vocational education in the Seventh Five-Year Plan period (1986 - 1990); and (3) to identify major practical issues concerning technical/vocational education and make policies pertaining to them. The conference, it is believed, will contribute to the healthy development of technical/vocational education in this country.

Effectiveness and efficiency: the principle for developing and reforming tertiary education

The guiding principle, considering that China is a large country with uneven economic and cultural development, is emphasized in several parts of the Decision. We should, on the one hand, try to mobilize all aspects of society to develop schooling through restructuring education, and should, on the other hand, try to make the most of our limited human, financial and material resources to strengthen education so as to achieve the highest possible social benefit. This is even more crucial for developing tertiary education.

In recent years, higher education has been developing rapidly, as demanded by the modernization drive, but with an undesired oversupply of institutions. The 1985 statistics shows that there were, in the country, 1,016 regular institutions of higher education with an enrolment of 1,770,000 and 1,232 adult colleges with an enrolment of 1,720,000. Some of them were newly created and the conditions there were very poor. The number of professors and associate professors in over half of the regular institutions of higher learning constituted only 8 per cent of the total of the country. The teaching staff in adult colleges has left even more to be desired in quality. So from the overall perspective, the expansion of higher education should be brought under proper control. Generally, no new regular institutions of higher learning will be built in the near future. The developmental goals set for higher education in the Seventh Five-Year Plan are to be pursued primarily through associations of the existing institutions in running educational programmes, proper changes in the form of schooling, tapping the potential of the veteran institutions, and rational expansion. Meanwhile, more attention is to be diverted to the readjustment of the structure of higher education as a whole, to changes in the irrational distribution of disciplines offered by institutions of higher learning, and to the achievement of educational excellence. While the qualitative increase of regular institutions of higher learning should be brought under proper control, correspondence education, evening colleges, and radio and television education should be actively developed. Of course, it is also necessary to provide an overall plan to guide the development of adult education at the tertiary level. The guiding principle for development in this dimension is: giving priority to in-service training, teaching what is needed, learning for the purpose of application,

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and ensuring quality. In order to meet different needs of different trainees or potential trainees, three categories of diplomas would become available: general certificate, speciality certificate, and discipline certificate.

The past few years have witnessed development of educational and instructional innovation in tertiary education in the following aspects:

1. Integration and interrelation of relevant disciplines has become visible in comprehensive universities and industry colleges which offer courses in a variety of disciplines.
2. It has become a common practice to provide education in humanities in colleges and institutes of sciences and engineering. There have appeared, in some of these institutions, specialities, departments, faculties of humanities or social sciences.
3. New-rising and frontier disciplines have received more attention.
4. New developments are witnessed in the content and form of associations between manufacturers and institutions of higher education. Some of the institutions of higher learning have come into long-term co-operative relations with some of the provinces, big municipalities, new-rising industrial cities and border areas. It is not rare that colleges and universities create together with factories or other enterprises communities of education, research and production.
5. The creation of inter-institutional associations is being attempted.
6. Reform of enrolment and job assignments for graduates from colleges and universities is well under way. In order to ensure the availability of required specialists to grass roots enterprises in rural and outlying areas, in 1983 some of the institutions of agriculture, forestry, medicine and teacher training began the practice of enrolling students from these areas and enterprises who, after graduation, are required to go back and work in their home community. Quite a number of these institutions are working together with establishments or local authorities to run schools or

educational programmes. Also, many of them have accepted commissions for training students.

7. The conventional grant-in-aid system which neglects academic records and performance in other domains, but takes into account the economic status of the student's family, will be replaced by the 'scholarship and student loan' system which is now being tried out in some of the colleges and universities and will be introduced into all the institutions of higher education across the country next year.

Study in developmental strategies and prediction of demand and supply of required personnel are prerequisite if the development of higher education is to correspond to the modernization drive, while not going beyond what the nation can afford. It is essential to make further efforts to change the irrational distribution of disciplines offered by the institutions of higher learning, and step up the growth of such weak departments and specialities as finance and economics, management, and politics and law. At the same time it is imperative to establish a number of new key disciplines, on the basis of open competition and peer evaluation, in colleges and universities that are identified as best qualified, so as to respond to the needs of the economic and social progress and meet the challenges posed by the new technological revolution. Colleges and universities where major disciplines concentrate will naturally serve as centres of education and scientific research as well.

In order to develop higher education in a more flexibly way, we think it necessary to streamline administration and devolve power to subordinate units, and to handle correctly the relationship between institutions of higher learning and government agencies in charge of them, which implies that, at present, colleges and universities are to enjoy more power of management while the state is to strengthen overall guidance. The State Council published some time ago, in the light of the Decision, **Tentative stipulations concerning responsibilities for higher educational management**. It specifically stipulates the responsibilities the State Commission for Education should bear for providing overall guidance and control of higher education. It also defines the responsibilities other central departments should shoulder for the management of institutions of higher

learning under their control, and the responsibilities the local government should share for the management of higher education. The State Council expresses its hope in the note for publishing the stipulations that all the local authorities and departments concerned will sum up their experiences from time to time and try to improve themselves so as to enable higher education to serve the socialist modernization more effectively.

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B. NEW EMPHASES IN EDUCATION

Malaysia is one-third world country which has a clearly stated pragmatic approach towards the development of tertiary education.

Tertiary education plays a critical role in the implementation of the New Economic Policy (NEP). When Malaysia declared its Independence on 31 August 1957 it was thought that the advancement of the indigenous people, the Malays, would be achieved during the ensuing decade. Actually this did not happen, and a new approach was adumbrated as the New Economic Policy in 1971.

This paper will be concerned with the economic and social background as well as the objectives of the New Economic Policy in general and tertiary education in particular.

Malaysian political, economic and social life is characterized by marked diversities which sometimes overlap to produce social tension rather than national unity. Data on three facets of this diversity are adequate for a basic understanding of the essential problems facing tertiary education.

Firstly, each of the three racial groups or communities forms a significant proportion of the total population.¹

Secondly, whilst the Malays are mainly concentrated in the rural areas, the

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The author alone is responsible for the accuracy of data and validity of opinions.

1. Sabah and Sarawak became part of Malaysia in 1963. Their respective data are excluded from this paper due to lack of space.

RECENT TRENDS IN MALAYSIAN TERTIARY EDUCATION



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Chinese are mainly concentrated in the urban areas, especially in the larger towns of Kuala Lumpur, Penang and Ipoh.

Racial distribution of total population in
Peninsula Malaysia*

Race	Persons	1957	Persons	1985
		Percentage		Percentage
Malay	3,125,474	49.8	7,325,600	56.5
Chinese	2,333,756	37.2	4,248,400	32.8
Indian	735,038	11.7	1,311,900	10.1
Others	84,490	1.3	82,900	0.6
Total	6,278,758	100.0	12,968,800	100.0

* Fifth Malaysia Plan, p. 134
1970 Population Census Vol. 1, p. 271.

Rural percentage of total population for each race

Race	1985	1957
	Percentage	Percentage
Malay	39.5	44.2
Chinese	13.3	20.6
Indian	5.7	8.1

Source: Fifth Malaysia Plan, p. 134.
(Percentages for 1957 were calculated from data in Table 3.1, 1970 Population Report, Vol. 1)

Further, in 1957 41 per cent of all Malays in Peninsula Malaysia were located in the four northern states of Perlis, Kedah, Kelantan and Trengganu.

Thirdly, from the beginning of the twentieth century the colonial administration and Christian organizations introduced educational facilities only in the towns. During the half century from 1920 to 1970 the asymmetry in the distribution of education facilities between urban and rural, increased continuously not only in quantitative terms but more significantly in qualitative terms. For

example, laboratories for science studies, well stocked libraries and better trained teachers were only available in schools in the larger towns.

A specific example of a typical problem that arose in the late 1960s will illustrate the significance of the above three items of data.

Soon after Independence a division of the University of Malaya was established in the Federal Capital, Kuala Lumpur. During the ensuing years it became increasingly apparent to the Malay public and the Malay political elite that very few Malays were graduating from the faculties of medicine, engineering and science.

The old colonial platitude was that the Malays were prejudiced against the study of science. However a study of the facts reveals that although secondary schools had been established in many new areas including the rural areas, most of these schools were not equipped with facilities for teaching in the science stream. Therefore although the number of Malay candidates qualified for university admission was increasing, there was an absolute dearth of quality candidates for the science stream faculties. Further, the small number of Malays who did succeed in gaining admission to the faculties of medicine or engineering often failed in their first or second year examinations so that the final number of Malay graduates was always rather small.

In 1969 this dissatisfaction burst out in racially oriented violence; the 13 May incident in Kuala Lumpur. Parliament was suspended during the period 16 May 1969 to 19 February 1971. The National Consultative Council, which was appointed in January 1970, formulated two new philosophies, namely,

- i) The *Rukun Negara* or National Ideology which aimed at strengthening national unity; and
- ii) The New Economic Policy (NEP) which continues to be implemented through to 1990.

The strategy of the New Economic Policy consists of two objectives:

- i) The elimination of poverty irrespective of race;
- ii) The restructuring of economic activities in such a way that no single ethnic community will dominate any significant economic sector.

In this paper, discussion of attempts to achieve these two objectives will be mainly confined to education in general and tertiary education in particular. It should be realized that many other (non-educational) measures have been instituted and implemented with varying degrees of success and these other measures have interacted with some consequences of implementation of programmes in education.

For purposes of this discussion the objectives of tertiary education of the NEP can be divided into five parts:

- i) A restructuring of the education system so that access, especially to the apex of the system is shared by all races in proportion to their distribution in the total population.
- ii) A restructuring of tertiary education so that special attention is given to the successful graduation of students of all communities in proportions that reflect the national distribution, without lowering academic standards.
- iii) A restructuring of employment patterns in the tertiary system so that the proportions of academic and general staff in the several institutions reflect the national racial distribution.
- iv) In the interest of national unity, a shift in the main medium of instruction from English to the National Language or Malay, in all parts of the tertiary system.
- v) The orientation of tertiary education towards greater emphasis on science and technology.

Just as in the case of the National Policies, it is an essential requirement that the restructuring and reorganizing efforts should not result in any person being deprived of rights or properties, similarly, too, in tertiary education it is to be understood that the restructuring and reorganizing would not cause any significant drop in academic standards.

At this juncture, it may be useful to explain briefly how academic standards could be maintained in the face of such major reforms. The University of Malaya is taken as the case study. Within the Commonwealth system of tertiary education it is believed that academic standards can, to some extent, be maintained by having a system of external examiners who are selected from universities that

have acceptable reputations for excellence. Further, local university staff are generally appointed from candidates who have obtained doctorates from recognized foreign universities.

Among other indicators, are the acceptance of Malaysian university graduates who have good first degrees by Oxbridge or ivy-league universities for admission to their higher degree courses.

The remainder of this paper will examine how the five aspects of the implementation of the educational objectives can be carried out together with some preliminary assessment of the achievements this far.

In 1905 an elitist English medium secondary school was established in Kuala Kangsar, Perak, for some children of royalty and other selected persons. In 1922 an institution was established in Tanjung Malim, Perak, for training Malay primary school teachers. This subsequently became the centre which produced many Malay nationalists of the pre-war period.

Tertiary education in Malaysia began at Raffles College in Singapore in 1929. Very few Malays could aspire to its Diploma. During the period 1928-1939, for every 100 students, there were 58 Chinese, 22 Indians, 11 Eurasians and only 9 Malays.

The University of Malaya was incorporated in 1949. Although a number of its Malay graduates from the Faculty of Medicine, including the present Prime Minister, Dato' Seri Dr. Mahathir Mohamad, went on to become important political figures, their proportion in the total number of students in the Faculty was rather small.

Selection of candidates for admission to the Faculty of Medicine was based on performance in the pre-University Cambridge examination (equivalent to 'A' levels). Actually, 60 to 70 per cent of the successful candidates would be selected from those coming from about 30 schools which were mainly located in the three large towns of Kuala Lumpur, Penang and Ipoh. Out of about 1,000 qualified applicants arranged in rank order, the first 300 or so would be pupils who had studied in these 30 schools. A few Malay candidates might be found among those ranking after number 800. Thus, if a Faculty was to select the top 128 candidates, it would be quite unlikely that there would be any Malays among them.

At first, the Governments would award scholarships to a few Malays who had at least the minimum qualifications for admission and pressured the university to admit them. Even if the Faculty of Medicine accepted such candidates, many of them would be decimated in the first or second year examinations which were non-clinical in nature.

The situation in Engineering was even more dismal from the Malay point of view. Malay enrolment into this Faculty ranged from 0.7 per cent in 1959 to 3.1 per cent in 1970.

From 1970 a policy of positive discrimination that would not dilute standards was adopted. This consisted of three new elements.

Firstly, the Malay pupils from rural secondary schools who had completed their Form V examination (i.e. 'O' Level) were brought to the University of Malaya campus and given intensive training in science subjects and the English language for two years. They had to pass rigorous tests twice a year and were sent home if they failed any subject.

An appropriate number of these special trainees were admitted into the Faculty of Medicine so that the Malay, or bumiputra, percentage of total faculty intake would be about 50 per cent. The remainder of places were distributed to Chinese and Indian candidates according to their rank order from the equivalent of 'A' Level examination results. Then the Malay students were given additional tuition to help them cope with the rigorous examinations of the Faculty in the ensuing years.

What has been the result of this arrangement? The number of Malay graduates has substantially increased. Many have subsequently gone abroad to gain specialist qualifications such as the Membership of the Royal College of Physicians, (MRCP) which is a requirement by the Government for the appellation of 'specialist' in Malaysia. Standards of the Medical Faculty and of the University Hospital are regularly monitored not only by External Examiners selected from the better-known universities throughout the Commonwealth but also by the General Medical Council of United Kingdom which continues to recognize the degree of the Faculty of Medicine for full registration in the United Kingdom.

A similar story can be told with some variations for the Faculty of Engineering which thoroughly restructured its teaching methodology and curricula recently. During the last five years the Faculty of Science has been able to obtain a well-balanced distribution of all the communities in its several departments.

No doubt, in relative terms, less Chinese or Indians may be gaining admission to the universities. However, even here the total intake into tertiary education has been expanding through the 1970s. In 1985, the total intake into six universities was 8,213 candidates out of 30,557 applications. This can be compared with 1960 when the total intake was 353 candidates out of about 400 applicants.

Furthermore, substantial numbers of Malaysians seek university places overseas. Of the third world countries, Malaysia has one of the largest number of scholars of all its races studying in tertiary education in the United Kingdom, United States of America and Australia.

The need for extra care of Malay students originating from the rural areas has been referred to. Relative to the well-trained urban students, they are particularly weak in three areas, namely learning in English, quantitative studies and the art of learning. If the Malay peoples were to wait until (a) an adequate number of well-trained teachers were provided to the 5,636 primary schools and 705 secondary schools in the rural areas;² (b) the respective curricula were reorganized while new textbooks as well as reference books in the Malay language are produced; and (c) the poverty of their families is so ameliorated that they will not only be able to consume adequate amounts of protein and other nutritional requisites for satisfactory mental and physical growth but also the parasitic infestations in their bodies are eliminated; then the quantum of patience required could be beyond human ability to endure unless such a person could emulate a *bodhisattva* as described in Buddhism or practice perfect *sabar* as is advocated in the Quran.

Thus pragmatic steps have been taken to achieve effective results during the decade beginning in the middle 1970s.

Standards need not be lowered if teaching methodologies are appropriately adjusted.

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Previously, lecturers and professors could purvey almost anything while their brilliant students would achieve good examination results by reading books which they understood well while they taught themselves in the laboratories. Now, teachers have to be able to explain their topics. Practical training must be organized to help the weaker students learn.

Academic standards can be assessed in various ways. Previously, some external examiners came and went within a few days, (not unlike the proverbial international experts). They sat in examination meetings to add a mark here and there or to declare certain candidates to be first class and then swiftly flew away. Now external examiners are expected to comment extensively not only on the examination question papers or the performance of examinees but also on the teaching programmes of the staff as well as their research and publications in learned journals. Ways are being found for examiners to select answer scripts at random and then to have these translated from Malay to English, so that the external examiner can really assess the standard of marking.

During the early 1970s the essential scenario shows a fairly rapid reapportionment of ethnic proportions among the students. Perhaps, a little more slowly, similar changes occur among the proportions of graduates. Changes in the academic staffing patterns came later still because it was considered that bumiputra staff should be recruited from among candidates with doctorates or at least masters degrees from reputable universities overseas.

The changes in the medium of instruction depended on the willingness of local staff to master the national language for academic purposes as well as the solution to the problems of building terminology in the national language.

Textbook production has proceeded at a much slower pace. Even today it has yet to be solved in most fields of tertiary education. Interestingly, medicine and science seem to be leading in terms of high quality publications in the national language.

A certain number of bumiputra staff have been recruited from among those who had obtained good first degrees overseas. They are given special scholarships to proceed through to the doctoral level. Again, by the mid 1980s, even with a fairly rapid expansion in the

number of university staff in the Malaysian tertiary education system as a whole, the achievement of 50 per cent levels for Malays has not been too much of a problem in most faculties.

By 1986, many local Chinese and Indian graduates have become so competent in the national language that in the issue of the medium of instruction, the pendulum has swung in the opposite direction. Malaysian universities are now receiving students who cannot learn effectively in English. To a certain extent the problem is exacerbated by a number of local lecturers who cannot teach effectively in the Malay language.

Ostensibly, all secondary school students learn the English language through their 11 years of primary and secondary education. However when they enter a university it has been found that they are unable to read and comprehend a page of an economics or biology textbook or journal or refer to an encyclopaedia written in English. This has been identified as the most serious problem confronting tertiary education at present.

The University of Malaya attempts to meet this problem in several ways. A course has been designed to enable students to learn in English in particular branches of knowledge. The main emphasis in this course called, the University of Malaya English for Special Purposes Project (UMESPP), is to teach students how to read English in special fields such as Biology or Law and to be able to listen to English spoken in lectures or tutorials.

The UMESPP course consists of three textbooks totalling 1,182 pages, together with teachers' guides totalling 492 pages. It may be taken at a pace suitable to particular students' needs over 250 hours through one or two years.

As a matter of interest, the UMESPP textbooks are being marketed by an international publisher in such countries as Brazil, Sweden, China and the Gulf States, while they are distributed in Malaysia by the University of Malaya Press.

The success of UMESPP has encouraged specialist staff at the Language Centre, University of Malaya, to produce the University of Malaya Spoken English Project (UMSEP), which is replete with video tapes and audio cassettes. This course enables final year students to communicate orally in such areas as management or pleading in court.

To emphasize the importance of the English language as a major source of knowledge, in this session (1986-1987), every teacher in the University of Malaya is preparing a 100 page booklet of selected readings in English, appropriate to their respective courses. This project involves the production of over 850 special booklets for 8,200 students in the nine faculties.

In addition, a three-year programme of learning English for reading and listening, followed by spoken competence is being made available on a non-credit optional basis to all the new undergraduates. Incidentally, the University of Malaya also provides optional courses in Islamic Civilization (60 hours) and Computer Literacy (14 hours, including 8 hours of hands on experience) to all its new students.

The fifth aspect of tertiary education policy deserves some elaboration. The reorientation of the system towards greater emphasis on science and technology does not only mean increasing the percentage intake of new students into the science stream faculties. Naturally this has happened with the establishment in Malaysia of universities that bear such names as the University of Science, the University of Agriculture and the University of Technology. Incidentally, these new universities also have departments in the humanities and education.

Science and technology can develop better at the tertiary level if they are closely associated with research and the supervision of an increasing number of higher degree candidates.

This is precisely what the University of Malaya has chosen to do. During the 15-year period, 1970 to 1985, its total undergraduate population has never varied more than plus or minus 10 per cent of 7,300 persons. At the same time, the authorities have deliberately encouraged all departments in all faculties and centres to be involved in advanced research and the supervision of higher degree candidates.

In 1979 an Institute of Advanced Studies was established to promote interdisciplinary research between different departments which would collaborate with each other to carry out more sophisticated research of national significance. The Institute of Advanced Studies has also been able to intensify collaboration with foreign scholars for the enrichment of its academic environment.

The emphasis on science and technology is obtained by intensification of the scope of research projects both in terms of funding and staffing as well as the expected impact of the research results.

In this region one of the greatest problems facing newly returned Ph. Ds when they come back to their Alma Mater is the lack of infrastructure for their research and the difficulty of obtaining adequate funding. There is also the 'sage-guru' complex that smothers their fresh enthusiasm with the myth that research shall be the privilege of seniors in the department while the newly returned staff patiently bide their time. There should be opportunities for the senior sages to guide their impatient juniors while the latter transfer their newly acquired technology to the local scene.

This requires some reorientation of administrative attitudes and the behaviour of supreme decision makers such as the University Councillors, Secretaries of Ministries and others associated with the management of tertiary education.

Before concluding it needs to be admitted that the author is aware of certain biases that have transpired in this paper. Instances have been taken mainly from his own experience of sitting in the cat-bird seat of one university for over 17 years. Constraints of space and time have prevented him from quoting many excellent examples from the experience of other universities in Malaysia as well as in the Southeast Asian region.

Significant omissions include discussions about the flows of candidates to universities overseas. Such totals are equal to the whole local intake. Unfortunately, the vexing issue of relative academic remuneration has had to be omitted. The two states of Sabah and Sarawak deserve lengthy discussion of their special problems.

In the face of all the obstacles and the difficult current economic situation, the protagonists of tertiary education need to be continuously reminded to strive for excellence, for this is the ultimate way for any university worthy of its name.

Institutional implications

No one can argue with the thesis that education constitutes an essential prerequisite to national development. Education is the principal means of achieving human capital accumulation, regarded by many as the most valuable national investment. From the macro viewpoint this has certainly been the case in Korea. Before 1945, less than 6 per cent of the total population was enrolled in formal educational institutions, but this percentage rose rapidly, reaching 26 per cent by 1974. Even during the Korean War, from 1950 to 1953, more than 15 per cent of the population was enrolled in such institutions, and education was not interrupted even during those perilous days.

Many people in development administration attribute Korea's rapid economic development in the past few decades largely to the broad based educational programme. In spite of some recognized weaknesses in the system, the full fledged implementation of universal elementary education was a monumental achievement for a society which stood at the threshold of a second opening. Even without a systematic long-range design for national development at this stage, Korean society took important and irreversible measures in initiating vast human capital formation, a step which was bound to have tangible developmental impact in later years.¹

Harbison and Myers found a significant correlation between quantitative indicators of human resource development in 75 countries which measure their economic development.² According to their composite index, the selected 75 countries

APPROACHES TO TECHNOLOGICAL MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT – THE KOREAN EXPERIENCE



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were grouped into the following four categories: Level I, underdeveloped; Level II, partially developed; Level III, semi-advanced; and Level IV, advanced. Korea was listed under Level III as one of the semi-advanced countries even when the per capita GNP stood at only US \$144 equivalent at the time of the study (1963). As they rightly pointed out, these quantitative indicators do not establish causal relationships; causal relationships might depend very much on post-education arrangements. The cause and effect relationship becomes more apparent if the figures representing the balance between technical and non-technical educational enrolment at the tertiary level are inspected. In the early 1960s, technical education's share was well below that of non-technical education. However, by 1974 the situation had reversed itself so that the number of students in technical education was double the number of those in non-technical education. These figures explain the degree of intensification of the industrialization that the country pursued.

Educated people can become the necessary manpower only if and when they are placed within the proper institutional frameworks, which can be made to function, and within a favourable social milieu. If we look at the role of education in relation to national development from the microscopic view, it may be said that the educational system, in general, has not been dynamic enough in adjusting its structure in response to development and rapid changes in the economic and the societal systems. It was, on the whole, slow in innovating educational programmes and also in orienting the system toward development.

It would be taking too much for granted to assume that a sheer increase in the educational base would prove to be sufficiently and efficiently productive. The truth of the matter might well be that the educational system has not really been able to produce the resources needed by industrial society; rather, society itself had so many tasks that provided the opportunities for the educated to get involved in self-education and thus become useful.

For example, the textile industry boom and the rapid emergence of the shipbuilding and steel industries have made it possible for Korea to successfully enter into world markets, not because schools were able to provide well-trained engineers, but because extensive opportunities in the actual fields induced the latent potential to respond to the challenges. In this light, education is certainly

important, but more important in a developing country is whether or not society can provide the challenges which almost miraculously raise the capacities of the educated people by great leaps.³

Nonetheless, it would be far too lethargic an approach to rely solely on an educational process that depends on the interfaces with the real world after formal schooling. Short term approaches which might be best adopted immediately could include: (1) establishing an institute which inherently bears a two faceted functional responsibility, one to education and the other to industry itself — this could well be a multidisciplinary industrial research organization; and (2) creating an educational institution from scratch — one that more than anything else can set the two standards of orientation. As a result, either of these types of institutions would establish a specific literacy in both academic and industrial affairs. After such institutions are properly established and operated, they would exert a tremendous pressure on the orientation of academia and industry.

While recognizing the importance of innovations in education and retraining programmes, Korea did not rely only on realizing these goals since the pace of development was too rapid to wait for such obviously rational but slow solutions. To implement the two short-term approaches above, the Korean government established the Korea Institute of Science and Technology (KIST), the Korea Scientific and Technological Information Center (KORSTIC), and the Korea Advanced Institute of Science (KAIS), a graduate school in advanced science and engineering. This graduate institution attempts to build up a 'centre of relevance' to the nation's economic development rather than merely creating a 'centre of excellence' in academic pursuits. Furthermore, it is designed to accommodate a sufficient number of students and faculty in any given field so that they can act as a critical mass through interaction among themselves. By so doing, it is possible to justify the adequate provision of such teaching and research facilities. These facilities also have the responsibility of developing programmes in teaching and research, which are relevant to the country's problems, instead of programmes which are impractical and are constructed merely out of intellectual inquisitiveness.

Supplying high calibre scientists and engineers

Establishment of mission-oriented graduate schools. Considering the urgency of industry's need to acquire manpower capable of

handling high-level technology, it was impractical to depend solely on Korea's already existing institutions of higher learning. Furthermore, there was a considerable degree of inertia in these institutions which would have had to be overcome before they could operate in a manner relevant to the nation's needs, at least from the short-term perspective.

This perception on the part of the Korean government led to the establishment of a completely new institution, the Korea Advanced Institute of Science (KAIS). KAIS was designed to provide post-baccalaureate programmes in selected applied science and engineering fields, initially as an autonomous institution. As an academic institution, KAIS devotes its primary efforts to its programme of graduate professional education; the chief goal of the faculty and administration is to establish and maintain a complete education programme to fill Korea's needs for high-level technological manpower.

Students at KAIS are selected from among those whose undergraduate preparation assures that they have the ability to take full advantage of a graduate education in their profession. The educational programme aims to combine the best available resources in science and technology, with particular emphasis on maintaining current expert competence in those aspects of research and development of greatest relevance to economic growth and national advancement. To this end, the institution and faculty complement their basic educational function by participating in research and development programmes and by continuing close contacts with industrial development and production. KAIS has awarded over 3,000 master's degrees since its inception in September 1973. These degree earners have filled many important positions in industry, academia, government agencies, and research organizations.⁴ When the Institute was established, there was widespread concern that there would be an excess number of graduates. However, demand far exceeded supply from the very beginning. This bold departure in the field of education had the additional consequence of exerting many positive effects on the existing institutions.

Strengthening university level research. In the mid-1970s, the growth of Korea's economy surpassed that of a semi-developed country and approached that of a highly industrialized nation in

which nurturing the potential of science and technology was an immediate need. The trend at that stage of development was naturally to turn an eye to the development of basic science as well.

In this connection, research activities for basic sciences had to be supported on a national scale not only as the source for industrial technology but also as the means for improving the quality of higher education. Support of basic research activities in universities, and the establishment of the Korean Science and Engineering Foundation (KOSEF) were a step forward in strengthening basic research fields.⁵

KOSEF is expected to develop into the nation's primary means for promoting university research, particularly basic research activities. Its roles and functions are:

1. Providing concentrated and consistent support to mission-oriented basic and applied research projects to meet the goals set for national development.
2. Promoting educational reform through a reform of research activities in universities, so that the universities can perform research as an intrinsic mission.
3. Stimulating efficient co-operative research projects through co-ordinating the fragmentary and intermittent research activities of professors and research scientists in the various scientific and technological fields.
4. Facilitating the discovery of promising talent and fostering the development of essential manpower through support of universities and research institutes, where scientific and technological innovations are generated due to the concentration of latent research capabilities.
5. Providing liaison for international scientific and technological co-operation by arranging joint research projects, the exchange of scientific personnel, and the exchange of information and data for research purposes.
6. Introducing an evaluation system in conformity with international standards to promote objectivity in scientific research methods and findings.

Since the objective of KOSEF is to contribute to the advancement of science and technology by fostering research capabilities, enhancing science education, and promoting international exchanges

in the areas of science and technology, it is essential to create a viable scientific community which can interact productively with that of the world at large.

This is a task which can be accomplished only through active participation and support of the entire nation and the scientific community in particular. KOSEF pledges to act as a catalytic agent for effectively channelling this national effort into creative fruition.

Utilization of foreign educated manpower. In discussing the role of foreign education in the advancement of a developing country, there seem to be two diametrically opposing views both in the developing countries and in the advanced countries. The affirmative view on the contribution of foreign-educated people to the developing country is often a gross over-generalization, asserting that whatever knowledge is brought into the developing country will eventually be very useful in its development. This view does not take into consideration possible distortions or skewed concentrations of effort that may result. For instance, those trained in particle physics may well not want to convert their interest to solid state physics, which would be relevant to the country's electronics industry. To provide them with the necessary conditions for the proper use of their own knowledge would not only be beyond the capacity of the nation, but it would also be an illusion to expect any meaningful scientific results. Those who have gone abroad for advanced study have gone through the programmes that the foreign country itself may require at some given time, and that consequently change from time to time, as seen in the past decades. Korea was able to locate many Korean nationals who were scientists working abroad who had extensive academic training; but only a few were in fields which the country could find immediately useful.

The other extreme view of foreign education is that it does not in itself contribute to the advancement of the developing country. For reasons just mentioned, this is of course an over-generalization which does not recognize the possibility of weaving such knowledge into the country's intellectual fabric. Obviously, the adaptation of foreign trained scientists to local needs is difficult to accomplish, but with foresight and persistent persuasion, the conversion is possible, and this fills the gaps which would otherwise be difficult to fill with only locally trained personnel. The initial days

of KIST's operation, saw personal involvement in just such conversions, from physical chemists to either lubricant technologists, or metallurgical engineers, through persistent persuasion. It can be highly successful, once the people involved find value in achieving something that can be applied by industry, rather than simply finding gratification in the increasing bulk of papers they would otherwise be turning out.

Some of the important potential contributions of scientists abroad, in addition to the cross-fertilization of knowledge with scientists at home, is their use either as resource people to supplement scientific knowledge, as needed, or as referees for scientific work. One of the most difficult situations in a developing country in terms of science is the lack of peer assessment, simply because of the limited number of people in any given field. Candid evaluation should most often consist of critical evaluation. However, evaluation of scientific work in the developing country environment is frequently seen as being criticism which is often taken with offence so that assessing results becomes impossible.

Today, the brain drain has become a world-wide problem. Korea has seen many gifted people drained away to advanced countries through overseas study, employment, and immigration. Overseas Korean intellectuals, however, can be seen as a very valuable and potential manpower source that can be mobilized for Korea's development. First of all, these intellectuals have received a high level of education in an advanced country and have become useful high-calibre manpower with experiences and skills in the vanguard of world technology with their activities. Secondly, Korea's educational facilities and research and development system have not yet reached the stage where they can develop top minds. Thirdly, even if Korea had the plan and capability to develop high level brains, immediate needs could not be met because it requires a long time. Accordingly, Korea has devised one means of securing high level minds by a policy to attract overseas intellectuals back to Korea. Now this foreign educated manpower acts as the key personnel for Korea's economic development and technical innovation.

Specific measures for skill development

Producing a sufficient number of qualified people in the sub-professional category is a critical task in economic development, and

devising measures to better utilize them after training is even more important. Better remuneration cannot alone solve this problem; instead deep-rooted tradition-bound value criteria need to be corrected, either through elevating their social status or improving financial factors or perhaps a combination of the two.

Towards this goal, Korea has taken several steps, including legal, financial, and administrative measures.⁶ Several laws have been legislated to step up the training programmes by the government and to obligate industrial firms above a certain size to undertake in-plant training programmes to help accelerate the production of needed manpower. In addition, the government can also exempt selected technicians, who pass the national examination for skill proficiency, from obligatory military service — this is probably the most prized incentive the government can provide — and award scholarships to those who are still undergoing education and training.

Consequently, the following measures are being put into effect:

1. Since 1976, it has been compulsory for all industrial enterprises with 200 or more employees to provide in-plant training. There are incentives in the form of financial assistance and tax exemptions to support and encourage such training facilities.
2. The total permitted enrolment in vocational high schools is being increased to a new maximum level, and the facilities in those schools are being expanded proportionately.
3. Military vocational training programmes are being broadened and increased.
4. As of 1981, 62 new vocational training centres have been established to produce strategically important skilled labour, especially for the heavy and chemical industries.
5. A basic skill practice system is being developed to give every primary and secondary school student the opportunity to acquire a set of basic skills, including: sawing, drilling, chiselling, and filing. School manuals are printed for school use so that every person can learn to use the simple tools which are easily available. Measures, such as reflecting the skill test record in the scholastic record, providing preferential scholarships for those with high skill

test records, and skill contests are being considered further to expedite the rapid spread of these skills throughout the population. The purpose of this programme is to provide a favourable environment for producing skilled manpower and encouraging the attitude that skilled manpower is equally as important as manpower with extensive academic training.

6. The National Technical Qualification System has been established to promote the status of professionals in technical fields, particularly the status of those who practice skills, through a system of examinations and certification.
7. A Technician's College was created to guarantee a new social status based on professional pride in the skilled worker's career. This institution provides a skilled worker a way to become a master foreman through education in the needed theoretical background and administrative skills; the worker may then proceed to become a manager or supervisor, with the same social standing as a regular college graduate.

National technical qualification system

The systems where the technological manpower needed for national industrialization are trained and employed in an efficient process, or where each individual presents his qualifications in an open market and contributes to the national development cannot be overlooked. Also, the system where government policy measures establish a qualification system for technical skills on a national level in order to reform the various existing systems cannot be ignored.

The government enacted a National Technical Qualification Law in 1973 to upgrade the quality of technological manpower. As a result, about 20 different qualification systems and sets of regulations administered by more than ten different ministries are being consolidated into a uniform qualification system covering qualification standards, criteria and titles to make it possible for the general public to recognize and rely upon the skills of the persons coming under this law. This new qualification system covers the following:

1. Students who complete technical institute or vocational training school programmes are expected to take technical

qualification tests, so that engineering education and skill training are geared to Korean industrialization requirements.

2. Qualification tests are also open to those without formal vocational training, but who do fill technical experience requirements, to encourage skilled labour to achieve higher level certificates.
3. Qualified persons are given various types of preferential treatment, so that public attention can be drawn to the importance of technical training opportunities.

If the ideas underlying this system are pursued in the industrial field, the engineers and technicians who earn the highest qualifications, 'certified professional engineer' and 'master foreman' respectively, may receive social respect similar to that of a university professor. In this way, those highly qualified engineers and technicians can concentrate on their work, have pride and self-confidence in their fields and finally eradicate the old tradition-bound ideology of contempt for technicians and craftsmen. Building a social atmosphere that prefers technical people is the eventual goal. Without this development, the usual inclination of young people toward academic training would hardly be changed. In this case the nation's all too scarce financial resources would not only be drained, but, more importantly, it would be difficult to fill the need for people in skill fields, and thus difficult to develop a base upon which industrialization could be built.

Concluding remarks

With the increased demand for intellectuals of creative technological competence, structural change in the higher education system will be required so that it can both adjust to an imbalance or skewing in the distribution of the educated work-force and improve the quality of education. To this end, post-graduate school, as well as university, education standards should be upgraded through systematic development programmes; in particular, research activities at universities and graduate schools should be promoted by providing concentrated and consistent support through a catalytic agent such as science and engineering foundations.

Rapid socio-economic development cannot depend on a slow educational process, which is based on the interfaces with the real world after formal schooling. In this respect, a short-term approach which might be immediately adopted should include the establishment of organizations bearing a two-faceted functional responsibility, one to education and the other to industry itself.

Socio-economic incentives should be provided to accelerate the production and utilization of technological manpower. The establishment of an adequate system at the national level is required to promote the enhancement of status for professionals in technological fields, particularly for those who practice skills.

Finally, it should be emphasized that education is certainly important, but more important in a developing country are the efforts to convert educated people into highly innovative manpower.

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Present issues regarding the management reforms of education in Sri Lanka could be evaluated realistically only within the context of past events and trends, inasmuch as the future may be dependent on the unmet needs of the present, and the new challenges that are rapidly emerging. Within these time linkages, reforms in management have mainly been a reaction to overriding political, social and economic impulses from its task environment. Internal initiatives for qualitative improvements in the management of the education system have yet to be generated on a self-sustaining basis of development.

Education policies and programmes

Since the political independence of the country in 1948, several features characterized the changes that took place in the education system (Ministry of Education: 1969; Jayasuriya: 1969; Gunaratne: 1983; Ministry of Education: 1986). The main thrust was to provide for democratization, equal access, and opportunity in education. The major policies that were adopted to achieve these central objectives were:

- a) Since 1947, when around 40 per cent of the schools functioned under the ownership and management of private, religious and other non-governmental agencies, the State has taken over the entirety of the education sector to obviate the earlier dualism in policies and administration.
- b) Education from the primary school to the university since

EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT REFORMS IN SRI LANKA



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1945 has been financed by the Government making education free to all citizens in order to provide equal access.

- c) The indigenous languages replaced English as the medium of instruction in schools and universities to counteract the advantages enjoyed by the English-speaking section in the society.
- d) The standardization of examination marks and enforcement of district quotas for admission to the universities were adopted, to democratize education in all parts of the country and to equalize opportunity among different language streams and subjects.
- e) The expansion of education at all levels, including secondary education in science in rural areas, and subject integration in the school curricula; were intended to provide easier locational access and a balanced network of educational institutions.

The management programmes which implemented these policies were primarily concerned with quantitative expansion and diversification of education on the one hand, and the use of limited financial and human resources on the other — within the framework of a State-managed education sector. These programmes resulted in an increase in the number of Government schools from 2,880 in 1947 to 9,575 in 1986, and pupil enrolment from 1.4 million in 1950 to 3.6 million in 1986. School availability in the populated land area now amounts on the average, to one school for every 4.6 sq km. From 1948 the number of schools in rural areas, specially those offering science subjects at the senior secondary level, increased. During the decade 1971-1981 there was a four-fold growth in secondary schools in science stream enrolments (from 14,000 to 61,000 pupils). In tertiary education, the country had only one university in 1950 with a student enrolment of around 2,000. By 1986, there were 16 institutions of higher education (seven universities, one University College, one Open University, one University Campus, and six institutes) having a total enrolment of over 15,000.

The outcome of these policies and programmes resulted in a participation rate of 84.8 per cent in the 5-14 age population by 1981. The literacy rate also increased to 86.5 per cent in 1981,

which is one of the highest among Asian countries. These programmes for educational democratization together with State provision of free health and subsidized food to develop human capital, are now being recognized as a comparative success story for a third world country (at its level of per capita income), with an early adoption of a 'basic needs strategy' for national development (Marga Institute: 1974; Isenman: 1980).

Different reasons are however attributed to explain these Governmental policies oriented towards educational democratization and provision of basic needs. Ponnambalam (1981) argues that these measures perpetuate a colonial economic legacy and that 'welfarism was adopted not out of a genuine concern for income redistribution and to build an egalitarian society, but out of a total failure to discern national priorities and to understand the inherent weaknesses of an export economy'. Gunatilleke (1981) however believes that the twin foundations for welfarism in Sri Lanka were the 'growing acceptance of a benevolent and paternal role for the State' and Buddhist culture which emphasized *dhana* (giving and sharing) and *metta* (compassion). Richards (1981) on the other hand views these social programmes as an 'overall compromise imposed on a nation of conflicting interest groups which has left the overall structure untouched', and which has therefore 'substituted for more radical redistribution of assets and incomes'.

Task environment of management

Education policies promoted basic needs, democratization and equal access. The societal forces which advocated these changes were, on the whole, beneficial to education and the country. However these same factors generated unintended consequences and dysfunctional effects which in turn diminished its beneficial results. For many years these environmental forces adversely affected education management.

As the education sector was financed and managed by the State, environmental forces converged to influence the Government. Political considerations tended to dominate both education policy and its management. Education, being a selective process, was the primary channel into occupations and the way to social and economic advancement. Schools also provided a training ground for

ideological socialization in post-independence nationalist and populist thinking (Sarup: 1982). The Welfare State became an article of faith among the new generation. The universities on the other hand, sparked anti- **status quo** movements (as in other Asian countries).

Organization and management (before 1980)

As education was a State enterprise, its structure and management imitated organization models in the public sector. Bureaucratic features of other Government Departments were readily assimilated and replicated. Some of the main characteristics of educational organizations and management were the following: (a) pyramidal organizations emphasizing hierarchy, vertical relationships and chains of command; (b) segmentation with little co-ordination between the universities and the schools or even among the divisions within each of these systems; (c) excessive centralization of decision making, information, authority and control at the top; (d) perception among managers and some academic staff that they are government officials and not social facilitators or public servants; (e) consciousness of hierarchy and the overriding concern for promotions; (f) weak horizontal interaction or group co-operation, low internal interdependence among teaching staff; (g) lack of organizational flexibility and change capacity; (h) organization inertia partly due to excessive size; (i) total dependance on the Government for policy initiatives and even for education leadership; and (j) permanent tenure of Government service staff. These features provided little incentive for change or pressure for innovation. They created bureaucratic and mechanistic types of organizations, and behaviour patterns from the school to the university level which were ill adapted for education innovation and change or capable of playing a central role as the 'cutting edge' of social and economic development.

Bureaucratic features and behaviour permeated into academic and educational activities as the following illustrates: (a) teachers were over dependant on the centre for curriculum development, with schools taking little initiative in this field; (b) teaching staff in schools mechanically followed central guidelines for teaching in a routinized manner; (c) academic supervisors concentrated their attention mainly on administrative functions usually to the neglect of improving standards of pedagogy, student learning and teaching materials; (d) research and innovation at universities were minimal

and ill-befitted 'seats of higher learning'; (e) educators preferred office hours (like bureaucrats) and had little time for students, parents and group educational activities after teaching hours; and (f) bureaucratic orientation of education with standardized national examinations resulted in a 'diploma disease' (Dore: 1980). All these elements contributed to organizational pathologies which have seriously affected the very heart of the education enterprise in Sri Lanka.

Previous management reforms

Education managers perceived their main tasks as accommodating the quantitative increase of students at all levels of the system, providing for required academic staff, teaching facilities and similar 'supply functions' to implement policies of democratization and access. The issue of quantitative increase was their central concern rather than qualitative improvement or structural changes in management. The main management reforms implemented, therefore responded directly or indirectly to issues of growth, as the following would indicate: (a) the school inspectorate was increased in the 1950s for closer supervision of State-aided schools (de Silva: 1977); (b) the number of schools, universities and other education agencies and staff recruitment dramatically increased between 1960 and 1980; (c) deconcentration to even out swollen workloads at the centre led to the appointment of Assistant Directors (in the 1960s), and Directors later on, for each Administrative District, and Chief Education Officers (in charge of areas in a few districts) and Circuit Education Officers throughout the country; and (d) greater central control was achieved after deconcentration, when the Education Ministry was amalgamated with the Department of Education to form an 'integrated ministry structure' with departments thereunder at the district level.

Many of these reforms were a top-down process constituting *ad hoc* and piecemeal tinkering, without adequate review or understanding of the direction and changes needed to improve effectiveness and performance of the management system. Structural rearrangements of organization at the Ministry and District tiers, masqueraded as administrative reform (Ariyadasa: 1976). However management styles, practices, behaviour and values were unchanged and remained firmly oriented towards maintenance types

of administration. Training in development administration, planning and management received scant attention when compared to training in pedagogy and the education fields. Structural reforms that were implemented, bypassed and left untouched the organization within schools and the management practices of principals, section heads and circuit education officers. Supervision of schools deteriorated and the despatch of circular instructions from the centre was mistakenly expected to correct the managerial ills of the system. The management of implementation, monitoring and evaluation of reforms and instructions, was usually overlooked. Thus only formalistic and nominal methods of control were practiced by the Ministry and its District offices. But schools continued to function without qualitative changes with their main management priorities being pupil admissions, new buildings and expanding physical facilities, paying salaries and going through the repetitive motions of covering centrally standardized syllabuses. It was remarked that, 'The whole structure of education in Sri Lanka . . . is one of the largest centrally controlled systems in the whole world' (de Silva 1977).

Deconcentration of responsibility to district levels was mainly in fields of routine administration, finance, supply and physical infrastructure functions. Policy making, personnel appointment and promotions, resource allocation, curriculum development and teacher training remained the prerogative of the centre, creating a domination dependancy syndrome. District staff were neither recruited and trained, equipped or organized to prepare and implement any meaningful programme for decentralized development of education administration. Institutional mechanisms for interaction with local government and other local level agencies, parents, development organizations and personnel working specially in rural areas, or even among different educational institutions located within the same district — were lacking. Paternal domination by school principals and other educational staff, bureaucratized Parent-Teachers Associations, and later on, School Development Societies, which were the only available institutions for citizen participation and interest group articulation. Over time, these were dysfunctionally converted into mechanisms for physical infrastructure maintenance. Thus there was little or no participatory management between the school and its clientele, nor among staff within the school itself. The centralizing cancer had afflicted the periphery as well.

Practices of school mapping were rarely adopted. Though over 80 per cent of the recurrent budget was spent on teachers' salaries — their deployment favoured more congenial districts and better endowed schools which tended to polarise schools between a favoured few and a disadvantaged majority (Premaratne: 1982). The misfit of the institutional network with student residential locations resulted in considerable waste of space, transport costs and other disabilities as the situation within Colombo City itself will typify (Guneratne and Perera: July 1983): (a) 28 per cent of pupils in schools within Colombo City were resident in localities outside the city; (b) 6 per cent of pupils (12,790) travelled into Colombo City from districts other than Colombo District; (c) in Colombo District alone 600 school buses were deployed for the daily transport of pupils; and (d) classroom space and facilities were under utilized in many areas where pupils were resident.

Though staff rapidly increased in number, their management and supervision systems did not keep pace with growth, nor were they improved. Knowledge and skills in education planning and resource allocation, management and organization leadership, project planning and management, personnel motivation and evaluation, and financial management and cost effectiveness — were conspicuously lacking among all levels of education managers and school principals. Because of the low salaries of teaching staff, the ability of management to utilize other means for staff motivation was largely unmet. The education bureaucracy mechanistically implemented the policies of democratization and equal access and its consequential programmes for quantitative growth, without meaningful changes (in organization arrangements, planning and resource management, personnel and financial management) or by adopting appropriate management practices, behaviour or values required for administrative development and change.

Reforms after 1980

By 1980, it was realized that quality improvements in management and organization were needed in order to manage an 'over-grown' education system. Following the usual traditional paths, the first changes in the 1980-1981 period were of a structural nature. The Ministry structure was changed, and a new division for Regional Supervision and Management Development was set up for the first

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time. The structure of District Departments was also rationalized. Management practices were sought to be improved through training by new course offerings on education planning and management and also by appointing trained staff to be in charge of education administration at the district offices. Consultancy and management services were provided through a newly constituted Management Services Unit. The supervision of the districts was intensified by a senior directorate located at the centre. On the whole these reforms were marginal and ineffective in the light of cumulative performance problems and issues that faced the management of the education system.

Evaluation of these reforms led to renewed thinking in the 1982-1983 period stimulated by the diagnostic studies requested by the UNESCO Regional Technical Co-operation Programme for Increasing Efficiency in Education through Improved Management and Planning (UNESCO: 1984). Its culmination was a Ministry policy statement in 1982 of the management reforms that were intended for implementation in the education sector. The inquiry on which these policies were based, had a broad systems-orientation and a wide range of concerns, typified by its initial statement of aims and strategy:

Management capability at school, regional and Ministry levels for education development, is determined by the availability of appropriate organization structures, planning mechanisms and practices, efficient work systems and implementation processes, effective supervision systems facilitating personnel evaluation and accountability, integrated information systems with appropriate technological facilities, dynamic personnel policies and practices, training and career development programmes focussed on performance improvement of individuals and organizations, and availability of institutions for co-ordinating the formulation, implementation and evaluation of policy. Such capabilities will be enhanced by the extent to which a clear strategy for improving management is designed and implemented; and will be enriched by the availability of institutional arrangements enabling the participation of client groups in the educational programmes at operational levels.

(Ministry of Education, July 1984)

Consequent to these policy initiatives, a series of reforms were instituted from 1983 to date. Planning was integrated with management and a new divisionalized arrangement was set up at the Ministry. These changes were subsequently modified by the establishment of the National Institute of Education (Government of Sri Lanka: 1985). This Institute was entrusted responsibility for the educational and academic improvement programmes and services on the one hand, and management training and development on the other. Improved arrangements are being launched for planning, programming and progress control from Ministry to school levels and new staff have been recruited and trained to implement and co-ordinate this work. An improved Staff College for Educational Administration with a larger and diversified training capacity and with specially trained staff has been set up with adequate residential facilities. This College is linked with District Management Centres established at regional levels to provide training and consultancy services through trained staff. This College is also undertaking management training through distance education modalities and has organized consultancy services, research studies and publications in different fields of education planning and management.

Changes in the recruitment and promotion mechanisms of the Education Service and Principals Service are being made, to improve the quality of entrants into education management positions. In order to enhance the application of the merit principle in appointments, transfers and promotions, an autonomous body — the Education Service Committee, which is a subcommittee of the Public Service Commission — has been set up with adequate regulatory and implementing powers. This, and other related reforms reflect a major attempt to depart from the earlier spoils system which had a dominating influence.

A major proportion of the new reforms proposed to be implemented are at district, sub-district and school levels. In order to better organize, manage and monitor the implementation of such changes, pilot projects were launched in four of the 25 districts of the country in 1984. These reforms are of a wide-ranging nature. They span 16 projects under four broad programmes (N.Fernando: 1984): (a) a Foundation Programme for School Development, relates to basic arrangements for improving operating practices and supervision in all schools; (b) an Organization and Management

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Development Programme, emphasizing change in school organization, the structure of the offices at district and divisional levels and the functions that need to be discharged, the systematic expansion of the school cluster project, and streamlining of the information required for effective education management; (c) a Planning and Resource Management Programme, designed to improve management planning and resource allocation at school, multi-school and other levels; and (d) a Personnel Management Programme, designed to improve management training, manpower planning and the practices of evaluation of personnel.

It may be too early to evaluate the impact of these reforms as many have been initiated quite recently. The present indications are that these reforms are a mixed success. On the whole, the importance of better planning and management in education is being gradually realized. A group of officers trained in these fields in other countries — mainly the United Kingdom, Australia, India, France and the United States of America, have taken the initiative with several important programmes for performance improvement and are making useful contributions. These change agents have also been adequately supported by a change-oriented political leadership in the Ministry.

Evidently some of the beneficial effects have been mainly in the following reform elements: (a) basic training in planning and management is being provided to a larger clientele with a coverage at all management levels; (b) planning and programming activities have been deepened and diversified from Ministry to regional and sub-regional levels; and (c) routine administration and finance work at district offices has been deconcentrated to divisional offices (where available), permitting staff in these offices to engage in more field inspections.

Future issues

The basic purpose and direction of education and its management in Sri Lanka for the future needs to be clarified. Goals of equal access and quantitative growth have broadly been achieved. Within the context of a third world country and its international environment typified by the negation of the New International Economic Order, the breakdown of the North-South dialogue, the widening gap between rich and poor countries, the growing economic

domination of the West; the future needs to be firmly based on goals and policies of self-reliance, endogenous development and structural change as the essential components for an alternative model of education development (Nerfin: 1976; Dwivedi and Nef: 1982). Education management in the future needs to embody decentralized participation and not centralized bureaucracy, liberation and not domination, stimulation of self-reliant initiatives and not encouragement of dependency, and the endogenous development of communities and institutions and not the imposition of external and irrelevant solutions.

The policy of direct management requires replacement by a system of indirect mechanisms for guidance, regulatory control and cost sharing. Substantial devolution of authority and responsibility would be encouraged by decentralizing to local governments and sponsoring and mobilizing the initiative of schools and individual education institutions to develop in a more self-reliant manner. Education management should be a partnership co-equally among central and local government on the one hand and professional educationists and the clients on the other — with greater salience placed on student needs of the future.

Unless the main client groups in education (students, parents and concerned citizens) are directly involved and participate in the education planning and management process — there is little possibility for improvement in the future. Teachers and education managers, specially at the school level, should be made directly answerable and accountable for results to these client groups in order to make education management more democratic and to encourage community management of schools.

The total capital and recurrent expenditure on school education for 1986 is around Rs. 4,024 million.* However the accumulated capital improvement delayed in the past, specially for basic infrastructure, special spaces and basic facilities required for new and upgraded schools for the next five years, has been estimated at nearly Rs. 6,000 million, (Ministry of Education: 1986). Teachers are also not satisfied with their remuneration levels and are consistently seeking increases. Maintaining a completely State-financed education system may therefore not be possible, indefinitely, in the

* Approximately 27.61 Sri Lanka rupees = One US dollar

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future for a vulnerable economy like Sri Lanka's. Education may be provided free mainly to the lower income groups and disadvantaged sectors of the population and with a greater element of cost-sharing with regional and local government bodies on the one hand and the more affluent sections of society on the other.

The management of future education reforms should seek to prevent both the domination of majority communities and also discount the claims of some privileged elements among ethnic minorities without adversely affecting the basic needs of the poorer citizen groups irrespective of community considerations.

Management reforms should not be oriented and designed to overcome the problems of the present only, but be focused on the education needs for socio-economic development of the country by the turn of this century. The curriculum needs for future full employment and enlightened citizenship, the creation of effective student centred teaching/learning institutions, the stimulation of innovations required for better use of local resources, the development of technology for labour intensive production, and the active fostering of communal harmony for national integration seem to be some of the higher priority items on the agenda for the future.

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The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) was created shortly after the founding of the United Nations in 1945. Its Constitution was adopted in London on 16 November 1945 which came into force on 4 November 1946. In the words of the Constitution, this specialized agency of the United Nations is aimed at "... advancing, through the educational and scientific and cultural relations of the peoples of the world, the objectives of international peace and of the common welfare of mankind" (emphasis added).

It was a good thing that the founders of UNESCO had the foresight to include, though at the very last moment, science as a part of its programmes as well as its nomenclature, for it had become quite evident by then that, together with technology, it was destined to exert an ever greater influence on human affairs.¹ The main thrust of the organization in this area has since been directed towards the development of science policy, the improvement of science education at various stages, the strengthening of international programmes for scientific collaboration and the application of science and technology to development, with man as its end — particularly in the context of his quality of life.

Immediately after its creation, the first tasks of UNESCO were to heal the gaping wounds created by the war and also try to ensure a stable peace. It was apparent that an essential prerequisite for peace was to create conditions for better life for the peoples of the world. Many former colonies began to gain freedom

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN UPGRADING SCIENCE EDUCATION



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after the war and newly independent nations soon outnumbered the original members of the United Nations — the number has increased from the original 33 to 158 today. Many of these new nations had poorly developed economic and social structures and inadequate manpower; hence an early thrust of UNESCO's effort was for the eradication of illiteracy and development of viable education systems in these countries.

This process still continues. But over the years the development of manpower has come to focus more on the areas of science and technology. This has obviously been in recognition of the ever increasing influence of science and technology in changing the lifestyles of the people. The Industrial Revolution, the Green Revolution and the more recent Communications Revolution have all resulted from epoch-making developments in the sciences. UNESCO's efforts in this field have been limited not only to the improvement of general scientific and technological education at various stages but also to the organization of co-operative research programmes in crucial fields together with inculcation of scientific attitudes in the people at large, short of which the scientific revolution cannot actually take root.

Science education and development

The need to upgrade science education for the economic development of nations hardly needs to be emphasized today. Particularly since the days of the first sputnik that spawned a large number of science curriculum projects — like the Physical Sciences Study Committee (PSSC), Biological Sciences Curriculum Study (BSCS) in the United States of America, and the Nuffield Science Projects in the United Kingdom — the value of quality science education is practically taken for granted in the developed countries.

Many economists have also devoted their attention to this particular area in recent times. In a significant research study in 1968, E.F. Denison analyzed data relating to economic development in the United Kingdom for the period 1950–1962. He found that during the period the national income for UK increased at an annual rate of 2.29 per cent; of this figure 0.60 per cent was due to increased labour inputs, 0.51 per cent to increased capital inputs, 0.42 per cent to economies of scale, and a residual amount of 0.76 per cent (or about 34 per cent of the total) was owing to advances in

knowledge. Denison estimated the residual factor in the case of the United States of America to be 23 per cent which is also substantial.²

Needless to say, in the process of acquisition of new knowledge and skills for economic development and modernization of production, science education and research plays a key role in both developed and developing countries. Thus the aims of science education are, today, not only to explore the mysteries of nature and apply the knowledge derived from such exploration to benefit a select few. The principal aim now, is to accelerate socio-economic development for the benefit of the total population of the country. Though science is intimately connected with the daily life of every person, in the developing countries, with high rates of illiteracy and low levels of general education, often very few people have even the elementary knowledge of its applications and prospects. In the absence of such basic scientific knowledge it is extremely difficult to generate a favourable climate for socio-economic development.

In 1981 UNESCO organized an International Congress on Science and Technology Education and National Development in Paris. One of the findings of the Congress was that in many third world countries attempts to modernize agriculture and industry were hampered not only by a shortage of qualified manpower, but also by a lack of scientific attitudes in the general public. In the absence of such attitudes it proved difficult to solve even the every day problems of health and nutrition, or the management of land. The Congress, therefore, stressed the need to relate science and technology education more closely to national development and real-life situations. Another major problem in this respect was seen as the need to develop inquiring minds and a scientific approach among children as well as adults.³

Situation in developing countries

The various science curriculum improvement projects in the developed countries of the late 1950s and 1960s did produce some impact on the developing countries — although in varying degrees. The need was recognized to give attention to various behavioural components in the pupils, e.g., cognitive development, attitude development and skill development. Also felt was the need for

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continuous training and retraining of teachers, attention to the provision of appropriate science teaching equipment and encouragement of the experimental method emphasizing inquiry rather than routine assimilation of facts.

At the primary level, most countries — both developed and developing — follow integrated science courses centred round the everyday lives of the pupils. At the secondary level, often the specialized sciences, viz. physics, chemistry and biology were treated separately. However, subsequently, attempts were made to develop integrated science programmes for the secondary level as well.

Initially, some of the curricular programmes in the specialized sciences developed in the Western countries were introduced in the developing countries with only slight modification. But it was soon found that the conditions in the basically agrarian developing countries were substantially different from those obtaining in the advanced industrial countries and this was an accepted fact to be considered when developing science curricula. Thus India, which adopted the PSSC programme for physics, had to remodel it to better suit the country's conditions. Also the need for teacher re-education was found to be a crucial one. Similarly, many countries which had introduced the somewhat radical 'new mathematics' in the Western model had to go back to more traditional mathematics acceptable to the parents and their wards.

Some of the major problems encountered in the improvement of science education in the developing countries appeared to be (a) shortage of well qualified science teachers who could successfully handle the inquiry approach; (b) a tradition-bound school environment that encouraged a memory-oriented learning; (c) lack of science equipment and other teaching materials to support student inquiry; (d) poor examination procedures depending on external grading, that encouraged factual learning rather than manipulative, experimental or innovative skills; and (e) poor national commitment to science and technology.

UNESCO has made substantial contribution to this effort for the improvement of science education. Many useful trend studies and handbooks of great utility have been prepared in this field. One of the best known is the *UNESCO sourcebook for science teaching* which has, since its first publication in 1956, been through many

editions and published in many languages. Similarly, with a view to initiating innovation and effecting reform in university science education and research, several trend studies were published for the teaching of physics, chemistry, biology and mathematics. The UNESCO Regional Office in Bangkok has also made substantial contributions in this respect through the organization of workshops and seminars and various publications.

The Bangladesh example

The case of Bangladesh may be cited as an example of efforts of a country in trying to bring about improvements in science teaching as an input for overall development of the national economy.

In a country with a long legacy of colonial domination, poor economic structure and political instability, it is not easy to bring about radical reforms in the education system. During the colonial period practically the only kind of skill development included in the school curriculum was that of the three Rs. Science was introduced in the secondary schools as a compulsory subject only in the early 1960s. In those days there was not even a single science teacher per school, on the average. Now according to the regulations for recognition, every high school must have at least two graduate science teachers — one with biology and the other with mathematics. According to a survey conducted in 1982, there were about 14,500 science teachers in about 6,800 high schools in Bangladesh. It has taken nearly two decades to provide even the minimum number of teachers so that all the schools are able to offer acceptable standards of science teaching.

Following the liberation in 1971, a National Education Commission was appointed by the Government. It was headed by a highly respected scientist-educationist, Dr. M. Qudrat-i-Khuda, and produced a report in 1974. The Commission lamented the fact that the standard of science teaching in the schools was old-fashioned and backward and emphasized the need to modernize the science curriculum and syllabuses in order to bring the standard of teaching at par with the advanced countries within the shortest time possible. The Commission very well recognized that it would be hardly possible to increase production without the creation of skilled manpower through a well-developed system of general and vocational schooling.

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As recommended by the National Education Commission, a Curriculum and Syllabus Committee was appointed by the Government in 1975 which prepared a new set of curricula and syllabuses in the next two years. These were introduced in grades I to III in 1978, grades IV and V in 1979 and in the successive grades VI to X during 1980-1984. Also, an integrated general science course has been introduced in grades IX and X. It was stipulated that this integrated science course would be compulsory for all pupils, but the option of taking other subjects in place of science has been given until the poorest schools, which are not yet adequately equipped, can upgrade their facilities for science teaching.

There is a general consensus of opinion that the nation needs to quickly provide meaningful scientific and technical education compatible with the changing economic conditions as well as with the people's rising aspirations and also make it available to a far greater number of the student population. In this context the present educational policy has stressed the thrust on science education through the provision of appropriate curricular offerings and teaching methodologies geared to meet the needs of both the individual and the community.

A new science curriculum. Considering the inadequacy and inappropriateness of the science education prevalent in the country until the recent past, it has now been replaced by a more rational one. The school science curriculum has been redesigned and attempts have been made to incorporate curricular contents linked with the real life situations of the learners. The curriculum includes teaching/learning experiences relevant to the pupils' everyday lives.

Environmental education has been introduced at the very beginning of the first level of education. In this subject, which is interdisciplinary in nature, information, concepts and principles basic to both natural and social sciences have been incorporated so that the learners are exposed to these from the very morning of their lives. Such an approach is expected to help the learners know their environment and its problems intimately and prepare them with positive attitudes, skills and competencies to solve their real life problems by using the tools, techniques and methods of science. The major aim is to acquaint the child with the elements of the environment which provide his basic needs such as food, clothing, shelter,

protection against and cure from diseases, the animate and inanimate objects of the environment, animals and birds, social environment, cleanliness and hygiene, light and heat. There is no separate textbook for Environmental Education for grades I and II but there is provision for a teachers' guide which the teachers are expected to follow in their teaching.

As a result of this integrated approach to science it is envisaged that the primary level learners (age 6 to 10) will be able to form a complete view of the environment gained through comprehensive observation of the surrounding phenomena and interaction of the natural forces and objects belonging to the world of the living and the non-living. This attempt has the added advantage of relating science teaching/learning with the real life of the learners and thereby making science more meaningful through the use of the local environment as a laboratory. This would obviate the creation of classroom laboratory facilities in about 44,000 primary schools in the country which would be difficult to equip with formal science instruments and apparatus because of resource constraints.

In the lower secondary stage (grades VI - VIII) Environmental Education has also been continued, but within its framework efforts have been made to teach natural science in an integrated manner based on the knowledge and experiences gained at the primary stage. The science course at the lower secondary stage contains the elements of natural science like physics, chemistry, biology as well as geography, hygiene and population education.

The Curriculum and Syllabus Committee recommended that for the Secondary or High School stage (grades IX and X) the elements of various sciences (except geography) should be integrated into two subjects (papers) under the titles of Physical Sciences and Biological Sciences. The first paper includes the nature and contributions of science, physics and chemistry. The second paper includes elements of botany, zoology, hygiene and nutrition, application of biological sciences, population education, and conservation of environment. In the school final examination each paper would carry 100 marks and will be compulsory for all students.

The basic objectives of science teaching at the secondary stage are identified as to (a) develop inquisitiveness about nature and the environment; (b) develop the skills of observation; (c) develop logical

thinking; (d) develop attitudes free from superstition; (e) develop ability to use the scientific method of work; and (f) develop ability to solve personal and social problems in an attempt to improve the standard of living of the people.

The Curriculum Committee also made several recommendations with a view to broadening and deepening the content and method of science teaching at the secondary level. Preparation of teachers' guides for each class, practical observation and experimentation, work on home and school gardens and agricultural farms, and the setting up of science museums in the schools have been emphasized. In addition, the Committee stipulated that, 'In order to broaden the perspective of science teaching outside the formal work in the classroom and laboratory, each school should form a science club. The students would take part in discussions on various subjects of science through these clubs'.

Instructional materials. The main instructional material is still the textbook. However, the new textbooks on science for the secondary stage have the following special features: (a) they use an activity-based approach with emphasis on locally made, low-cost, improvised equipment; (b) they include optional activities to extend the highly motivated and intelligent students; (c) there are a large variety of written exercises to include problem questions as well as recall questions; and (d) there is a lesser emphasis on technical terms.

Simultaneously with the publication of new textbooks, the Bangladesh Educational Equipment Board has been strengthened to function as the central agency for design, development and promotion of local manufacture of educational equipment for schools and colleges. It has been assigned the responsibility to act as the co-ordinating and regulating agency in matters of design, development, and distribution of educational equipment and training of teachers in use and maintenance of teaching aids. During the last three years the Board has arranged the local manufacture of considerable science equipment and their distribution to about 4,000 secondary schools.

In the field of in-service education for science teachers, two agencies have been operating for the past several years. These are the National Institute of Educational Administration, Extension and Research (NIEAER) — previously called the Education Extension Centre — and the Institute for the Advancement of Science and

Technology Teaching. At the primary level the National Academy of Primary Education (NAPE) has been organizing programmes for the 49 Primary Teacher Training Institutes (PTI).

The present effort is aimed not only at the improvement of science education in the general secondary schools but also in the religion-based secondary schools called *madrasahs*. Traditionally, these institutions give instruction in religious subjects and are managed by the Bangladesh Madrasah Education Board. These *madrasahs* enrol about 10 per cent of the total secondary stage enrolment. Certificates given by the Bangladesh Madrasah Education Board are considered equivalent to those give by the four secondary Education Boards in the country. In 1975, science was introduced at the primary level of all the *madrasahs* — starting from grade III. The following year an elective science group has also been started both in the *Dakhil* (grades IX - X) and *Alim* stages (grades XI - XII) of the madrasah system.

In 1983 the science course in the *Dakhil* stage of the *madrasahs* was made identical with the science course in the equivalent grades of the general secondary schools, both using the same textbooks and other materials. About 150 of the nearly 2,500 *Dakhil* stage *madrasahs* in the country have so far introduced this course. Similarly, in 1985, science course of grades XI - XII (higher secondary stage) in the general colleges was introduced in the *Alim* stage (grades XI - XII) of *madrasahs*. Of about 600 *Alim*-stage *madrasahs*, nearly one-third have already introduced the science course. It is expected that this trend will gather momentum in the coming years and would ultimately usher in a unified system of education both at the primary and secondary stages so strongly advocated by the Bangladesh Education Commission of 1974.

National commitment. As was indicated earlier, improvement of science education in a country is intimately linked with the overall social and political commitment for science development. In early 1986 the Government of Bangladesh announced a new National Science and Technology Policy which was produced after about two years of deliberations in various circles concerned. The policy suggests measures for the harnessing of science and technology for economic development of the nation and, to that end, calls for improvement of the standard of science education at all levels from

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the school to the university. It is proposed that this may be done through such measures as follows:

- a) Adequate emphasis should be given on simple concepts of science and mathematics from the primary stage and the school curriculum should be oriented in such a way that the problem-solving skills of the pupils are enhanced and the interdisciplinary character of science is reflected.
- b) Primary resources for education and training, namely, qualified teachers, physical facilities, equipment, books, journals and teaching aids should be ensured.⁴

Elsewhere, the policy calls for the creation of scientific awareness among the broad masses of people through popularization of science and technology and encouragement of innovative activity, especially among the younger generation.

This commitment has been supported by substantial financial allocations for the development of science education at the secondary stage. In 1981 Bangladesh launched a 'Community Schools Project'. The main aim was to give practical orientation to the offerings of the secondary schools. Initially, one boys' high school and one girls' high school were selected in each of the 200 selected *upazilas* (sub-districts — there being 460 of them in the 64 districts covering the country). Under other projects, during 1982-1985 science equipment was provided to 1,200 non-government secondary schools and 150 non-government *madrasahs* which lacked basic facilities for science teaching. Orientation courses were organized for 6,500 science teachers.

Since then the project, 'Introduction of New Science Course in Non-government Secondary Schools' and the project, 'Introduction of Science Courses in 150 Non-government *Madrasahs*' have been merged into a larger project called, 'Secondary Schools Development Project with Emphasis on Science Education'. Out of a total estimated cost of US \$47 million for the project, the Asian Development Bank has offered to provide a soft loan of US \$37 million for the project during the Third Five-Year Plan (1985-1990).⁵

The development of Science Education has been included as a major element in the programme for secondary education in the Third Five-Year Plan of Bangladesh. The plan proposes to improve within its time frame, 3,800 secondary schools and 200 *madrasahs* —

i.e. nearly half of the secondary level institutions in the country. It is intended to select the most deficient institutions, especially those in the rural areas, for the purpose.

The Secondary Schools Development Project essentially has three components:

1. Provision of new science laboratories, multi-purpose science rooms and science equipment to 1,700 selected secondary schools (including 200 *madrasahs*) by way of augmenting their science teaching facilities;
2. Providing another 2,300 secondary schools with essential science equipment; and
3. Establishing a network of nine Secondary Education and Science Development Centres (SESDCs), attached to existing Teacher Training Colleges, to provide continuous in-service education to science teachers throughout the country.

The resources of the National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB), the National Institute of Educational Administration, Extension and Research (NIEAER), the Bangladesh Educational Equipment Board (BEEB) and the Bangladesh Institute of Distance Education (BIDE) are being mobilized for the implementation of the integrated project. Co-ordination is being carried out by the Project Implementation Office under direct supervision of the Director-General of Secondary and Higher Education.

In addition to the above, a National Examination Reform Committee was set up by the Government in late 1985 which submitted a report in early 1986. The Committee felt that a major reason for the ineffectiveness of the education system is the overriding importance given to external examinations at the secondary and higher secondary stages. The Committee has therefore recommended, among other things, that the final results should depend on partly external and partly internal evaluation and a fair proportion of the questions should be of the 'objective' and 'short-answer' types. These recommendations, if implemented in right earnest, would go a long way in taking the education system out of the current memory-based ritual which is quite opposed to the inquiry-based approach of science teaching.

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At the level of non-formal science education, the National Museum of Science and Technology has been co-ordinating the activities of about 400 science clubs of young people throughout the country. The members of these clubs participate in inquiry-oriented science project activities and, during the winter season each year, participate in district-level competitions that culminate in a National Science Week and a festive science fair in Dhaka, the capital, which is attended by high dignitaries including the President of the country.

A challenge for the future

As has been pointed out before, it is not easy to shake off the legacy of centuries of colonial domination and backwardness. While the developed countries reaped the benefits of the scientific and technological revolution of the last two centuries, the developing countries were left far behind. Thus today, while the people in the developed countries — comprising one-fourth of the world's population — have a per capita income, typically, of over US \$5,000, half the world's population living in the developing world have an average per capita income of less than one-tenth of this figure.

Education can no doubt make important contributions to the development effort in general and science education, in particular, can bring about significant changes in the people's perception of the natural environment and provide them with the knowledge and skills required to harness the forces of nature, increase production and thus bring about improvement in their quality of living.

The various measures for the improvement of science education in Bangladesh over the last few years are by no means unique. Practically all developing countries today do see the value of education and, particularly, feel the necessity to upgrade science and technology education in their bid to effect any substantial improvement in their condition. However, many social, political and economic factors — some generated outside their frontiers — often create roadblocks on the way to progress. Illiteracy, superstition and dogmatism among the people, natural calamities, rapid increase of population, unfair terms of trade, dissipation of resources in non-productive sectors are some of the factors conspiring to work against any worthwhile measure taken for expansion of educational facilities.

However, in spite of such inhibitive factors, progress continues to be made after all. For example, in Bangladesh, the number of

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pupils taking the high school examination has increased from about 207,000 in 1980 to about 366,000 in 1986 — nearly 77 per cent increase in six years. While in 1980 about 26 per cent of the pupils appeared in the science group, this proportion has grown to about 45 per cent in 1986. With the introduction of the new integrated science course, and the provision of improved science facilities in nearly 4,000 relatively poor secondary schools in the country, it is expected that by 1990 all pupils appearing in the high school examination will be offering science as one of the subjects — including the practical examination. It is interesting to note that science has proved to be a very popular subject even in the religion-based institutions called *madrasahs* and further expansion of science teaching in these institutions is hampered only by the shortage of suitable teachers and other facilities. Similarly, the development of science clubs throughout the country during the last decade is surely an encouraging phenomenon and this shows that science has certainly started taking roots in the culture of the younger generation.

In the recent past, developments in the field of science and technology have been taking place at a dizzy pace in the world arena. Advanced nations have been benefiting greatly from such new fields as microelectronics, computers, biotechnology material sciences and new sources of energy. Radical changes in production methods and life-styles seem to be just around the corner with further spectacular developments in these areas. Developing nations may be left even further behind if they do not keep abreast of these new developments and take steps to harness them for their economic salvation. This is a new challenge that the developing nations can overlook only at their own peril.

This is also a challenge facing UNESCO today — an organization which was created with the avowed aim of ensuring stable peace in the world and scientific development of nations which obviously predicates the uplift, especially, of the countries falling behind.

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After literacy.... what? Working with literacy programmes, one hears this very same question being asked over and over again by illiterate villagers when being persuaded to join literacy class, by learners enthusiastically exploring new learning opportunities after mastery of literacy skills and by policy makers searching for the contribution of literacy to development.

The significance of the question has often been discussed, but unfortunately, there have been few concrete and systematic attempts to respond. Post literacy learning opportunities are often viewed as luxuries which can only be afforded after the attainment of universal literacy and primary education.

Within recent years, such a view has been seriously challenged. In order to achieve universal literacy by the Year 2000, many nations find themselves coping not only with the problem of how to create a literate society but also how to achieve a literacy sustaining one as well.¹ Three pertinent issues, in particular, are becoming the main concerns of policy makers and literacy planners.

1. Motivation of illiterate learners.

In a society where literacy is not normative, and where a literacy programme is not implemented as a component of a broader social and political transformation endeavour, motivating the illiterate villagers to participate in literacy programmes is often the single most difficult obstacle to overcome. In many societies, a large number of the illiterates

AFTER LITERACY... WHAT? AND HOW?



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are the poor who rarely come across the printed word in their daily lives or may associate books with unhappy memories of the school. During the Thai National Literacy Campaign,* a district officer in Chaiyaphum province was asked the question, 'Why have I to become literate when I am not a monk, a soldier or a government officer?' so often that he memorized the entire literacy primer so that he could respond with passages which are relevant to the life of each illiterate villager. The International Council for Adult Education's study on the World of Literacy found similar situations, and a conclusion from the studies of Pakistan's literacy programmes was cited that 'learners must have had some exposure to written language, seen the need for reading before they apply themselves to the lengthy task of becoming literate'.²

The need to create a favourable literate environment, one in which posters, books and signs are readily available, is now widely advocated as a pre-condition rather than a follow-up to successful literacy programmes.³

2. Relapse into illiteracy. After launching massive literacy programmes, many countries find themselves coping with the problems of relapsing into illiteracy. Unfortunately, widespread as the phenomena may be, it is little documented and reported. In his article on 'Management of Post-Literacy Programmes', Bordia cited a study conducted by Roy and Kooper in India in which an average loss of 45 per cent in literacy skills was found among graduates.⁴ Such phenomena do not occur only among graduates from literacy classes but among primary school leavers as well. A study conducted by the Thai Office of Primary Education Commission in 1979 reported 18 per cent reduction of literacy skills among primary school leavers.⁵ Several factors have been found to contribute to the levels of literacy retention: level of literacy achieved, availability of printed materials, frequency of usage and occupation.⁶ In Thailand, for example, a follow-up of graduates from functional literacy classes found higher retention rates among those villagers who kept a number of books within their homes and among those having access to newspapers and printed materials more than 10 times per week.⁷

* Prior to this were the Thailand UNESCO Fundamental Education Co-operative (TUFE) and Thailand UNESCO Rural Teacher Education Project (TURTEP). Both focused on training for work in rural development. Both had a major component in literacy. These projects worked well and created the climate for the advent of what was to be staged later as the National Campaign against Illiteracy.

In recognition of such problem, most literacy workers now agree with the recommendation of the Expert Team on Evaluation of Experimental Literacy Projects that, 'For literacy to be effective and lasting, it must be sustained by an infrastructure that not only provides literates with abundant reading matter but also maintains their taste for reading and broadens their horizons'.⁸

3. Contribution of literacy to development of quality of life.

For development planners and policy makers, the value of literacy skills lies not in their acquisition as an end in itself but more in their contribution to the development of the individuals and the society. Edgar Owens, for example, points out that to progress from traditional knowledge to the modern knowledge system, literacy skills are essential, as they serve as the tools thorough which the population can 'develop, record, communicate, apply and preserve the knowledge'.⁹ To fulfil their facilitating roles, however, the provision of literacy skills must be accompanied by concrete attempts to enrich the environment with learning opportunities and sources of knowledge and information.

Taking into consideration these three dominant issues: motivation of learners, relapse into illiteracy and linkage between literacy and development, a literacy programme is no longer viewed in isolation but as a component of a lifelong learning system.

The nature of continuing education

As the need for continuing education becomes more widely recognized, the issue confronting educators becomes how to implement such a concept in reality. The scope of continuing education can range widely from one country to another. For some countries, it simply means the provision of suitable books to neo-literates in greater quantity. For others, a whole range of educational services is involved that is accessible to the literate population.

Bordia classifies the objectives of post-literacy programmes as follows: (a) remediation of the deficiency of primary and adult education programmes; (b) continuation of organized learning activities to further upgrade literacy skills; (c) application of literacy skills to the living and working situation; and (d) communitization of ideas by individuals and groups using the literacy skills.¹⁰

Thailand is a country which has been deeply concerned about providing continuing education as a means to motivate as well as to

reinforce development and application of literacy skills. As early as 1972, the Thai Adult Education Division initiated the establishment of village newspaper reading centres, the aim being to supply every community with up-to-date and relevant reading materials. Such a system, it was argued, would help to prevent reversion into illiteracy not only among the adult population but also among primary school graduates. Later on, in 1986, when Thailand embarked on the National Literacy Campaign, which aims to reach all the illiterate population within the ages of 14-50, literacy planners asked for commitment from the government to provide an increased supply of rural relevant reading materials as a precondition for launching the campaign. As a result, broad ranges of continuing education services become an integral part of the campaign. Over 70 per cent of the budget spent in the campaign is allocated for continuing education activities, some of which are as follows:

1. Functional education programmes enable neo-literates to continue their education to high school level. Although, the programmes entitle the graduates to the same rights and privileges as the students of the formal school system, the curricula are developed to suit the needs and conditions of the out-of-school population. For the new literates, a functional literacy programme is available, with curricula specially designed to serve the minority groups and the learners in the different regions of the country. At the higher levels, the curricula cover the syllabuses of the formal school system but place emphasis on the application of the knowledge acquired. As shown in the Table on the following page the courses are shorter in duration, charge lower tuition fees and require lower unit cost than the formal school system. The teaching and learning processes are also highly flexible. Each learner can choose to take night classes, radio correspondence or simply to take the examination, with special group meetings designed to assist the learners to apply the acquired knowledge in their daily lives. Through such an approach, an illiterate villager can continue his education to the university level within seven years, using less than 5,000 Baht.* It is not surprising, therefore, that the programmes are highly popular, serving over 200,000 participants each year, 70 per cent of whom are children and youths in the rural areas.

* Approximately 25.5 Thai Baht = One US Dollar.

Comparisons of the basic characteristics of equivalency
continuing education programmes and formal primary
and secondary schools

	Duration to complete (years)	Tuition fees	Unit cost
Upper primary school	2	Free	
Equivalency continuing programme			
– Night classes	1½	600	1,068
– Radio correspondence	1½	237	476
– Equivalency examination	1	220	none
Lower secondary education	3	873	8,887
Equivalency continuing programme			
– Night classes	1½	1,000	1,068
– Radio correspondence	1½	643	676
– Equivalency examination	1	360	none

Source: Planning and Research Division, Department of Non-Formal Education, Thailand, 1986.

2. In spite of the highly flexible nature of the functional education programmes, not all neo-literates have the interest nor the time to participate regularly. A survey conducted among neo-literates found only 26.8 per cent expressing the interest to continue their study in pursuit of educational credentials and certificates.¹¹ The rest, however, were more interested in short term learning activities to acquire knowledge or vocational skills. While the Department of Non-Formal Education, the co-ordinator of the National Literacy Campaign, organizes over 8,000 interest groups and 6,000 vocational courses for over 300,000 people each year, it is felt that such services may not reach the neo-literates adequately. To ensure that every neo-literate has access to organized continuing education activities, the Ministry of Education in collaboration with eight other agencies involved in development, such as the Departments of Health, Agriculture, Industrial promotion, Co-operative promotion and Prosecutions, organize a programme entitled 'Promotion of

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Quality of Life for Neo-Literates and Graduates of Primary School'. In every sub-district where the national literacy campaign has been completed, learning groups composed of neo-literates and interested primary school leavers will be held once or twice a month. The group will choose to study an issue which interests them. The issue can come from the government's list of basic minimum needs of the rural community or can be identified from local needs and concerns. For each issue, the group will discuss the problem, relevant information and possible solutions using learning cards prepared by the agencies involved. The discussion will be supplemented by demonstration, visits and joint projects as necessary. Field workers, local teachers and local resource persons will take turns serving as learning group facilitators. At present, the programme is in operation in six provinces that have successfully reached the illiterates whose names are identified through the national survey. The programme will be gradually expanded to serve all neo-literates graduating from the national literacy campaign.

3. To further supplement the organized learning activities, the Thai government has also attempted to enrich the literate environment in the rural communities. The first effort was directed towards providing a more systematic and continuous flow of relevant reading materials into the rural areas. Over 17,000 new village reading centres were set up by rural communities, each supplied with two daily newspapers by the government. To further expand the coverage of these reading centres, local leaders in more developed villages, the primary schools and religious institutions are requested to provide newspapers to their own communities so that the limited government funding can be channelled to poorer villages.

Through such collaboration, it is expected that all rural communities will have access to at least one reading centre by the year 1991. An evaluation of the reading centres found that on the average, around 18 villagers used the centre daily and that each reader discussed the contents of the newspaper with at least two other people in the community.¹² Higher rates of literacy retention as well as higher rates of voter participation in the general election were found in villages with reading centres.¹³

The sharp increase of village reading centres has also strengthened the commercial delivery network of newspapers into the rural areas. Previously, the delivery of newspapers or other printed

materials in most rural areas had to rely on teachers, school children, travelling salesmen or the local buses, often resulting in loss or delay in delivery. With more newspapers being purchased by the government and by the villagers, who gradually develop the habit of reading newspapers, the agents can now afford to establish delivery networks into the rural communities through which other printed materials can also be channelled.¹⁴

The Thai government has also conducted a wide variety of strategies to increase the supply of quality printed materials into the rural areas. Some of these attempts include:

- a) Distribution of a set of 24 pictorial booklets specially designed for neo-literates to every village that has completed the National Literacy Campaign;
- b) Conducting a nationwide book donation campaign using various approaches to elicit donations from the public: setting up donation boxes in public places and offices, door-to-door collection services, appointment of local donation co-ordinators, and a massive campaign through the mass media. From July 1985 to June 1986, over 10 million used books were donated and distributed to village reading centres and schools in rural areas;
- c) Training of local leaders, primary school teachers and Buddhist monks to produce simple reading materials locally;
- d) Mobilization of the Buddhist temples to set up reading centres for the surrounding communities. At present, 4,000 temples have offered their services and pledges have been received from the public to donate books to over 2,000 of these temples;
- e) Negotiation with other agencies to be aware of the needs of the neo-literates and to produce appropriate materials in sufficient numbers; and
- f) Setting up a non-profit organization under the name 'Foundation of Good Books for Villagers' with the aim of encouraging commercial book publishers to serve the rural readers. Among their activities, the Foundation publishes lists of suitable books to encourage the public to purchase them for their own reading as well as for donations.

Through these measures, the Thai government has greatly increased the supply of reading materials into the rural areas. There are, perhaps, other more far-reaching consequences. Dr. Kowit Vorapipatana, the Director-General of the Department of Non-Formal Education, sums up their experiences as follows: "While we are certainly satisfied with the increase of printed materials reaching the rural areas, we are more excited about the responses received from other development agencies, the commercial sectors and the public. They are now concerned about the problem of inadequacy of reading materials and feel that they too can help in solving the problem".

Lesson learned from the Thai experience

It is far too early to draw conclusions about the effectiveness of the Thai continuing education programmes. There are, indeed, many emerging shortcomings that the organizers have yet to deal with such as inadequate attention given to the promotion of writing and numeracy skills and inadequate use of the mass media. Nevertheless, the Thai experience does provide many lessons and insights into the complex issue of continuing education. Some of the pertinent lessons learned are as follows:

Continuing education programmes must respond to the diverse needs of the villagers at different stages of literacy — pre-literate, semi-literate and functionally literate. One single continuing education programme, no matter how well conceived and how effectively implemented, will not be adequate. Continuing education must provide opportunities for villagers to become exposed to the use of literacy skills in daily life, to upgrade their literacy skills and to apply them to fulfil personal and community needs.

Continuing education must not concentrate solely on imparting technical information but must also provide opportunities for pleasure and recreation. Too often, programme planners are so concerned about equipping the neo-literates with useful information that the reading materials provided or the contents of the continuing education programmes focus primarily on technical information.

This issue is further complicated by the fact that the villagers themselves, when asked about the types of books they would like to read, tend to list the books that deal with technical topics, when

in fact, they do choose differently when reading for pleasure. A reading centre in Angthong Province conducted a survey of readers' preferences prior to establishing a book renting service. Based on the responses, all the money was used to purchase books on useful and technical topics such as family law, agriculture and medical handbooks. A few children's books and cartoons were bought with the money left over. During the first four months of the service, only the children's books were rented by the adults and the young readers alike.

In promoting reading habits, therefore, there must be a suitable combination of entertaining as well as informative reading materials. In this respect, much can be learned from the first national literacy campaign in Thailand, circa 1940. Many housewives, improved on the basic literacy skills acquired in classes by reading the Buddhist scriptures or the newspaper or the popular novels which many modern day educators would look on scornfully as 'trash'.

Continuing education must be attuned to the lifestyle of the target learners. A major fallacy in many continuing education programmes is the assumption that once the villagers become literate they will automatically become avid readers or dedicated self-learners. This assumption is, of course, far from accurate. In Thailand very few graduates from the literacy classes eagerly volunteer to participate in continuing courses or even make use of the reading centres. When interviewed, many admitted that they lack the interest, they are not confident that they can read or they are afraid of being laughed at.

A bridge must be made to help the neo-literate make the transition from dependency on oral culture to more literate culture. In the Thai experiences, the use of radio and correspondence, mobile book boxes and informal learning groups have helped to extend continuing education programmes closer to the neo-literates. Many ingenious tactics have also been adopted by different provinces to encourage the neo-literates to make use of the literacy skills and the learning opportunities provided. Bulletin boards with newspaper headlines are put up in the villages. Personal letters are sent to neo-literates. Used newspapers are bound and rotated to the homes of the neo-literates. Mini-reading centres are set up for every ten households in the community. Public address systems broadcast messages to stimulate people to read the newspaper. Informal groups are set

up to discuss the contents of the newspaper. Campaigns to put up house signs, road signs, talking fences are conducted. Folk artists are requested to advocate the use of literacy skills. District offices and employers require that the neo-literates fill application forms and sign receipts in their own handwriting.

These and many other tactics have greatly motivated illiterate villagers to participate in the programmes and assisted the neo-literates to overcome their inhibitions to use literacy skills in their daily lives.

Continuing education must be conducted on a mass nation-wide scale. Too often mass literacy campaigns are followed by continuing education programmes which reach only a small segment of the population. In judging the effectiveness of continuing education, it is not enough and in fact, it may be misleading — to assess only how well the programme is serving a specific group of the target population without considering the number of people benefitting from the services.

The choice between coverage and quality of service represents a real dilemma in the provision of continuing education. Many foreign visitors accustomed to seeing libraries filled with books and magazines often question the value of having village reading centres with only two newspapers for the entire community. They often inquire whether the money for all the newspapers would not be better spent in setting up a few well equipped libraries. For the planners, however, the choice was very clear.

The decision was to first set up a system which can be expanded on a nation-wide basis and then, to improve on the quality of services provided through the system, rather than, providing comprehensive services which will be limited to a small segment of beneficiaries.

Continuing education must involve the participation of those outside the field of education. With the range of services to be provided and the masses of people to be served, continuing education must be perceived as the shared responsibilities of all segments of the society. Yet, such a principle is difficult to achieve in reality.

The development of continuing education was hampered for a long time by the perception that post-literacy activities were to serve only the neo-literates and therefore, should be handled by

agencies involved in literacy education. In many communities, village reading centres were neglected by the primary schools or the development agencies, who often set up separate systems to disseminate information to the community.

Several approaches have been adopted by the Department of Non-Formal Education over the years to partially overcome such attitudes. Policy commitments were secured from the government on the need for information and a resource system and the shared responsibility in providing such a system. Information on the problem of reversion to illiteracy among formal school graduates as well as adult learners and the need for lifelong learning opportunities were widely disseminated. Development agencies, the primary schools, religious institutions, commercial enterprises, folk and mass media were mobilized to gradually take part in providing continuing education. First, these agencies were invited to serve as advisors. Later on, their roles were expanded to include the sharing of resources and personnel for organizations providing continuing education programmes; orientation of their regular services towards the need of neo-literates; and finally, incorporation of continuing education in their regular services.

At the same time, the Department of Non-Formal Education, in promoting continuing education, tried to maintain a low profile and give due recognition to other agencies. An example of such an approach was the order issued by the department to take out the names of the department from all of the nation's 27,000 village reading centres so that other agencies will feel free to utilize and contribute to their development.

It was strongly felt that successful continuing education can only be achieved if it is viewed as an integral part of the regular services of development agencies, as an essential follow-up for graduates by primary schools, as a profitable undertaking by commercial enterprises, as a service — to the target audiences by the media and as a self enrichment processes by the community. Literacy agencies should serve first and foremost as planners, promoters, co-ordinators and only as organizers of basic services when absolutely necessary.

A review of the Thai experiences and other literacy efforts clearly indicates that the attainment of literacy is essentially the

initial step to lifelong learning processes. It is a passage to the active learning process in which knowledge can be acquired, stored, reviewed, applied and transmitted systematically. If continuing education opportunities are not adequately available however, such transition cannot be made and all the literacy efforts will be wasted. Provision of continuing education is indeed a challenge, not only for literacy workers, not only for educators, but for all those who share responsibilities in human resource development. It requires greater commitment and more sustained collaborative efforts than the teaching of literacy skills itself. But, only by meeting such a challenge, can we hope to reap the fruits of our efforts — the contribution of literacy to life improvement.

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C. FUTURE CHALLENGES TO EDUCATIONAL
REFORM — A CHALLENGE TO UNESCO

Introduction

It is useful, in looking at the needs of education in the year 2000, to discuss first the concept of education and its application to the Pacific islands; second, to examine its development with particular emphasis on the development of formal institutions and how these attempted, as they were expected, to meet the changing needs of Pacific societies. In the third and final part of the paper, an attempt is made to discuss some of the major education needs of the next two decades especially those that will have a major impact on education in the year 2000.

It is necessary also to discuss at the outset the particular difficulty that one faces in dealing with such a wide and diverse area as the Pacific islands. A Pacific island educator of colour, Dr. Fanaafi Larkin of Western Samoa, was reported to have remarked that the only thing Pacific islanders have in common is the water around them.

The Pacific islands refer to those islands that lie immediately to the North and South of the equator in the Pacific Ocean which were settled, though not exclusively, by people of Melanesian, Polynesian and Micronesian descent. Since that settlement a lot of other racial groups have also moved into them, such as the Indians in Fiji, French Caucasians in New Caledonia, Chinese in Tahiti, Japanese and American Caucasians as well as other Asian groups in Hawaii. This

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makes the Pacific islands a very diverse region ethnically, culturally, and linguistically.

The Pacific islands may be grouped in terms of their political affiliation and status. First, there are those that are affiliated to or associated with the United States of America; these are often called the American Pacific and the group includes the Federated States of Micronesia, Palau, North Marianas, Guam and Marshalls in the North Pacific and American Samoa in the South Pacific — with a total population of about 294,000.¹ The second group is affiliated to France — the 'French Pacific' — and consists of New Caledonia, Wallis and Futuna and French Polynesia, with a total population of about 303,000. The third group consists of the independent and/or self-governing islands of the South Pacific. This group was previously administered either by United Kingdom, Australia or New Zealand and stretches from Papua New Guinea in the west to Cook Islands in the east; Nauru in the north to Tonga in the south, and has a total population of 4.5 million.

In this paper, one has to make many generalizations about Pacific islanders, and the most common of these either relate to their racial/cultural groupings or their political association and status; these generalizations do not deny the diversity that exists within and between each group. In addition, the generalizations, when made, are intended only to assist the identification of commonalities and/or differences between and within groups.

Education and change

Education is defined broadly as initiation into the ways of life of a community or society² and includes both the informal initiation that takes place in the home and formal schooling. A great deal of change has taken place in the Pacific islands, particularly during this century, and the Pacific islanders have had to change correspondingly fast in order to keep pace.

The Pacific islanders, in the words of Papua New Guinea's Ambassador to the United Nations, Mr. Renagi Lohia, 'have had to run in order to remain on the same spot'. Because of the rate of change, education itself — its goals, content and form — had to change in order to be effective in initiating people into their communities.

Perhaps the greatest amount of change has taken place in the educational systems of the independent or self-governing islands of the South Pacific, as they have had to meet the required manpower demands of independence for their countries in a very short time and satisfy the rising education aspirations of their populace.

In order to understand some of the current issues of education in the Pacific Islands and to be in a position to identify some major education needs in the next two decades leading up to the turn of the century, one needs to have a brief look at the development of education in the Pacific islands.

Education for continuity. Education, unlike schooling, was not introduced to the islands; it was carried out in the villages by older members of society prior to the coming of the missionaries.

A number of early studies by anthropologists³ have captured some of the ways in which societies in the islands ensured that their values, skills and attitudes were passed on to the younger generation. This type of education is referred to as 'informal' to differentiate it from 'formal' education which takes place in a school setting.

Informal education was (and is) concerned with the continuity of society in which adult members passed on to the younger generation what they acquired through experience. Much of the learning took place in practical situations in which young members of society would observe and imitate the adults and, with adult supervision, would learn to develop appropriate skills in various fields. Similarly, by observing adults or those older than themselves, the young people would learn appropriate attitudes towards their elders, peers and members of outside groups. The elders of the tribe or group would relate legends and stories to the young which would explain their history, their origins, their value systems and their view of the universe. Learning was pragmatic and practical; its outcomes were easily observable in terms of the acquisition of food and other necessary materials and comforts for the family, and the demonstration of acceptable attitudes, values and behaviour for community survival.

Today, informal education exists side by side with formal education and it plays an important role in teaching survival skills, particularly in rural areas where the extended family is still largely intact and the economy predominantly at the subsistence level.

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In towns, many functions performed by informal education are passed on to the schools, but because of the inability of schools to perform such tasks much is lost. The parents and elders of the present generation in the South Pacific did not receive as much schooling as their children, but when and if they move from their villages to towns to join their children and relatives who may work there, they might be able to continue to play some role in the informal education of the young people in that setting. At best, they could pass on to the young in the new setting the cultures of their group and thereby maintain some continuity.

Education for change. The concept of the school was introduced to most of the islands of the Pacific by the Christian missions. The mission efforts were later followed by government efforts but the objectives of the missions and governments in the education field, at least during the pre-independence period, were different and even contradictory.

The mission schools were primarily concerned with the evangelization of the islanders. Wherever they settled, the missionaries translated the bible into the local languages and their schools taught the local people how to read and understand their scriptures. The curricula of the mission schools focused on reading and writing in the local languages and in basic numeracy. They also taught practical skills like agriculture, house building and elementary hygiene. The medium of instruction was usually the vernacular language of the local area.

The missionaries were concerned with total societal changes and both the church and the school played a part in that effort. The islanders were not only converted — which was the main objective of the missions — they were also introduced to new and more 'civilized' ways of living, based on Christian principles. The school became an agent of change and it taught the package of skills necessary for living in what was conceived by each mission group as constituting a Christian society. The early schools were conducted in churches or in the compound of the missionary who, in some cases, was also the teacher. Gradually, separate school buildings were built and a separate cadre of teachers came onto the scene.

Government schools. The government entered the field of education fairly slowly and almost reluctantly, especially in former

United Kingdom or New Zealand territories like Fiji, Western Samoa, Solomon Islands and Kiribati.

Government involvement in education preceding the independence or self-government of many of the islands may be divided into two phases. During the first phase, colonial governments in the islands were concerned largely with the training of clerks and public servants in order to enhance the effectiveness of their administration. The second phase occurred when the education systems were expected to respond to the needs of self-government or independence, however these needs might be conceived.

In terms of the content of education, government schools used the languages of the metropolitan powers, such as English, French and German as the medium of instruction and they also introduced foreign curricula and examinations. This is still the case in some of the independent countries of the South Pacific; the New Zealand School Certificate and the New Zealand University Entrance Examinations, which are taken at Forms V and VI respectively, are still being taken by most of the secondary schools of the independent countries of the South Pacific. In the past, foreign teachers were brought in to teach at the schools from either New Zealand or the United Kingdom, and a few came from Australia. The use of Peace Corps teachers in the American Pacific group was aimed at the same purpose. As a result, schooling placed a lot of emphasis on academic and often irrelevant learning for the purpose of passing external examinations.

When technical education was introduced, it did not receive the same status and emphasis as academic education. In time, it became 'academic' in orientation through its inclusion as an examinable subject in external examinations and thereby received greater respectability. In cases where this did not happen, such subjects or courses and others like them were earmarked for those who were considered not 'bright' academically.

Government and Christian mission relations. The government and mission schools existed side by side serving different functions and different groups in society until the government exerted its influence on the mission school through financial assistance. Gradually, the mission schools were taken over except for a few which preferred to be independent. As part of the conditions of taking

over, the governments set certain requirements relating to the medium of instruction, curricula, examinations, and on the minimum qualification of teachers. In other cases, as in the Solomon Islands, the missions were not entirely happy with government intervention and it led to a period of strained relationships. However, the development of a more co-ordinated and rationalized education system enhanced the capability of such systems to respond to greater demands such as those associated with self government and independence.

Meeting the needs of independence and self-government education for national development. During the 1950s and 1960s the notion of government involvement had become well established, at least in the South Pacific region. Hitherto, increased government involvement had been hampered by lack of financial resources. However, the austerity of the immediate post-war years had passed and a more favourable period of economic growth had set in. The colonial governments in the islands were faced with the need to prepare their countries for their gradual movement towards independence. On the international scene, economists were pointing to education as a critical component for national development and they stressed the importance of developing human resources and manpower, and the need for national planning.⁴

Increased government participation in education marked the second phase of government involvement. In contrast to the first phase, the government was no longer just a participant in the venture; it was expected that it should be co-ordinating and directing not only education, but also the whole social, economic and political development of the country.

The colonial governments in the islands had envisaged for the school a much broader role in development as they prepared for independence; and they wanted the school to foster a number of broad objectives as for example:

- a) the development of national consciousness in Fiji;
- b) the development of an appreciation for the limited opportunities of an atoll environment in Kiribati; and
- c) the countering of the prevailing academic trend in education in the Solomon Islands and Fiji.

The outcomes of schemes designed to bring out the above stated objectives were not encouraging. In each of the above cases, except perhaps in the development of national consciousness in Fiji — the results of which are difficult to quantify — the objective has not been accomplished. On the other hand, in the case of the objective of preparing manpower for independence, the result was an astounding success.

Academic education. As can be seen from the above, much was expected of the school during preparation for independence and self-government, which previously the school did not have to worry about. Many of the objectives expressed in the education plans and reports contained ideals that education planners and professional educationalists desired, but these were new to the teachers, let alone the parents. The latter paid hefty school fees for their children and they expected them to receive the kind of education which would give them good jobs such as those to be found in the public services of the Pacific islands. They knew that these jobs were obtained by people with academic qualifications and hence their desire to have a similar type of education for their children.

The school can be an agent of reform but it cannot of itself be expected to avert or solve certain major problems of society without any programme of reform based on some widely held ideology such as the Ujamma in Tanzania.⁵ The latter was often referred to but not well understood by the public or its teachers. The teachers gave lip service to the new ideas but went on to do what they knew best, which was to teach in the formal and academic way.

Agro-technical education. During the 1970s, governments of the South Pacific countries were concerned about the over-emphasis on academic education in their schools and plans were devised for the establishment of practically-oriented schools to be located in the rural areas to serve the needs of the majority of the students. In Fiji, the Education Commission in 1969 endorsed this idea but cautioned that because the schools would necessarily be located in rural areas, they should not be 'second best'. The Commission urged that they should be of high standard, and careful consideration should be given to their location.⁶

In the Solomon Islands, the Education Policy Review Committee came to a similar conclusion when they recommended the

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establishment of the (then) Area High School in 1974 (later known as the New Secondary School).

The Community High School in Kiribati — established in 1978 — was supposed to be anchored in the community and be a centre of community adult education training. It was to rely on the community for the teaching of traditional skills. It was therefore like a halfway house between the school and the community, serving the school-leavers and the community. Its anomalous position created some difficulties because the villagers looked on it as a school trying to teach some of the skills of the village which they thought could be better learnt from living in the village.

In Fiji, the number of Junior Secondary Schools mushroomed to about 20 in the first two years of operation, and it was not possible to maintain the level of quality in both facilities and teachers that the Fiji Education Commission recommended. Insidiously, the pressure for academic programmes built up and the practical-oriented courses became examinable in the external examinations, and the school, in time, became a poor replica of its urban academic counterpart.

The Area High School in the Solomon Islands had a difficult struggle to survive. It lacked the necessary resources and teachers with appropriate orientation, and its role was not well understood by the community. Even if it had the resources and the teachers, it would still have had difficulty in surviving in its original form because it lacked the support of the parents.

The attitude of the parents in Kiribati towards the Community High School was aptly described by its Minister for Education Training and Culture in a statement on 26 August 1980, when he announced the results of an investigation on this project and plans for its winding up. The Minister said,

They (the parents) want an academic type of education which would pave the way for paid employment. So Government has been trying to develop a type of schooling which concentrates on practical skills considered to be relevant to pupils who will live in the rural areas and not obtain cash employment. While all the time the people desire an education with an academic bias designed to prepare children for employment in the urban areas.⁷

The statements of the Minister for Education from Kiribati probably echo the sentiments of the parents in the South Pacific, particularly in the rural areas, in their expectation of the school to provide their children with modern skills and the knowledge to enable them to get a good job. It has always been the function of the school, since the government entered the field of education, to train people for the public service. Employment opportunities of educated people have widened with the opening up of other sectors of employment, but the parents' view still holds true that education leads to employment in the modern sector. Any change in the function or form of the school will be difficult to sell to the parents unless it can be demonstrated that those graduating from it can gain comparable, if not better, financial rewards than those graduating from academic institutions. Only then will they see the school as worth their investment and support.

Education, manpower and employment. One of the things that the school has done very effectively has been the production of manpower to meet the needs for independence or self-government for the islands, particularly those needs pertaining to posts in the public services. Most of the islands, except for the few remaining colonies, have now become self-governing or independent, and the transfer of responsibilities of governance to the local people has been remarkably smooth. Most of the critical positions in the public services have been taken over by the local people and the process of localization has been largely successful. In some cases, the pace of localization has been thought to be too rapid and that local people without the necessary qualifications and experience have been placed in responsible positions leading to a drop in the quality of the public service.

Most of the posts in the public services in the islands have been filled, but the education system continues to turn out academically trained people who cannot continue to be absorbed. The number of people that can be absorbed by the private sector — which in the Pacific islands is necessarily small — is limited. As a result, a lot of school-leavers become unemployed. In the case of Fiji only about half of the 15,000 annual school-leavers can expect to find jobs, the others will have to find alternative occupations or join the ranks of the unemployed — running at about 10 per cent. Even university graduates are not finding it easy to find employment; the hunger

strike in Fiji in 1984, by students who had completed their teacher-education qualifications at The University of the South Pacific (USP) but were not offered teaching positions, has brought this problem to the fore.

The relationship between employment and education has now become very apparent in the islands. One of the factors of island-ness — limited size and population — puts a constraint on the size of the public service and, more particularly, on the extent to which the private sector can expand to absorb the ever increasing number of school-leavers. This highlights the need for rapid job creation, especially in islands with a high proportion of youthful population as in the Melanesian and Micronesian island groups.

Education in the 1980s and beyond. In looking at the major educational needs and directions of the Pacific Islands in the next two decades and beyond, there are four assumptions which would exert some influence on education in varying degrees. These are:

- a) that certain major changes in the educational system will continue by virtue of built-in educational traditions and institutional pressures;
- b) that continuing demands on basic education services will continue to be exerted as part of democratic changes occurring in the Pacific countries;
- c) that greater pressure for involvement in the affairs of Pacific people will continue to be exerted by Pacific rim metropolitan powers in the light of the increasing importance of the region; and that
- d) the development in science especially in the information technology area will have major impacts on education, language and culture and these will also have wider political and socio-economic ramifications.

Academic education. One thing clearly emerges from the previous section. Parents and pupils will continue to demand an academic type of education and will continue to be reluctant to accept non-academic alternatives, as for example agro-technical education. This is because academic-type education yields better jobs than do the other types of education in the Pacific islands setting, and so long as this situation exists, it would be reasonable to

expect such demand to continue. An academic type of education normally prepares people for the public sector; this is the major avenue for wage employment in the islands. Usually, the smaller the country, the greater is the proportion of people employed in the public sector. So despite the efforts of the governments to diversify education and build technical, agricultural and other forms of non-academic institutions, existing demands for academic type institutions both at the secondary and tertiary levels will continue to grow at least in the next two decades.

As a consequence of this, a lot of school-leavers prepared only for general skills will continue to be produced every year, of which only a small proportion might be absorbed into the workforce. This trend will exacerbate the growing unemployment and underemployment especially in the urban centres and will generate other associated problems. Such a situation would raise questions relating to what the value and aims of education should be especially for those countries that have not faced the full brunt of this issue. This would pose a major problem in many of the islands in the Year 2000.

Agro-technical education. The conventional remedy of education planners to the increasing unemployment of school-leavers, that of developing agricultural and technical schools, is hardly an answer in all the islands because the employment of the graduates of these schools would continue to be problematic. Evidence not only from African experience, but also from the experience of some Pacific countries⁸ indicates that despite expectations, technical and agricultural school-leavers tend to seek out 'white collar' jobs instead of those that would require people to 'soil their hands', so to speak. It seems that it cannot be assumed that just because they received training in skills which predominantly involve the use of their hands, apart from their heads, that they should automatically prefer jobs relating to such skills within the public sector, let alone generate their own jobs in their respective skill areas in the business or private sectors.

The critical factor to the solution of this problem lies in the creation of a structure of incentives within the economic system, generating the need for skills to which such agro-technical institutions could respond. Unless such institutions are responding to identifiable marketable skills, there will always be a danger of training people who cannot be employed.

In the Pacific islands, there is likely to be a greater demand for more specialized agricultural and technical skills in the bigger island groups of Papua New Guinea, Fiji, Solomon Islands and probably New Caledonia; these countries are in a better position to support a system of technical and agricultural schools. These islands have a sufficient resource base to support a comparatively large population and would also have a greater potential for the development of their private sectors than small island groups. For these reasons, one would expect to see the development of a comprehensive network of agro-technical schools in the above islands over the next two decades.

Non-formal education. In the smaller island groups of the Pacific where the development potential of the private sectors is limited as in the case of Tonga, Kiribati, Tuvalu and Western Samoa, a greater emphasis would be placed on non-formal education. This type of education is aimed at developing various types of skills using the resources in the community, to assist people generate their own employment. There is already a wide acceptance of this type of education as it tends to attract young and not so young adults who know the kind of skills they need. Non-formal education and training can be used to develop basic practical mechanical and technical skills without reliance on the expensive resources of formal institutions; this is being attempted fairly successfully in Fiji.⁹ Not only is the development of non-formal education and training critical, equally critical is the need to co-ordinate formal and non-formal education and to rationalize these activities. Only a few countries in the Pacific include non-formal education in their education planning considerations. Non-formal education is particularly pertinent in a region where many of the countries cannot afford to commit much more of their limited government funds to formal education. Non-formal education could assume a much greater importance in the next two decades particularly for the smaller island groups.

There is a potential role here for UNESCO to try and be involved in this non-formal area — finding opportunities for work and training in areas of work outside the conventional system. The private sector is limited, in the islands because of the size of the economies of the countries. The education systems will have to prepare the students to generate their own jobs. This is better done through non-formal education. The resources of the various coun-

tries of the Pacific cannot meet the demands in this area. They are already spending too much on formal schooling. In Fiji the greatest amount of the Government budget is spent on education and this is the same in the other Pacific Islands. Very little is directed towards the non-formal area.

Primary, secondary and tertiary education. One of the things that is difficult to satisfy, especially for newly independent countries, is the demand for more education. The independent countries of the South Pacific except those in Melanesia have a comparatively high rate of literacy. A great push for universal primary education is therefore likely to be exerted by the Melanesian islands such as Papua New Guinea, Solomon Islands and Vanuatu.

A lot of the problems being faced in secondary are largely due to lack of quality in primary education. The qualitative improvement of the primary curriculum is an important area that UNESCO might be involved in.

Up to now the emphasis of teacher training here at the USP has been focused on junior and senior secondary schoolteachers. There has been little done for the primary area. There are primary teachers colleges in the region but the quality of a lot of these colleges leaves much to be desired. This is where a lot of improvement in the quality should occur, and this is where the university, and an outside body like UNESCO could work co-operatively together. It would be the upgrading of the staff and the upgrading of the curriculum in these areas and also the organization of the whole primary school system to relate it to the community and so forth.

The whole area of primary education is a possible area for the involvement of UNESCO. In relation to that, a lot of the teaching in the primary area in the Pacific is conducted on a multi-class teaching basis. The teachers in this area would therefore need preparation in this type of teaching.

This could be the path of the whole quality improvement in this area. The Institute of Education of USP has been carrying out a project in Western Samoa to try and improve this multi-class teaching. Research shows that about one-third of the teachers in primary are teaching multi-classes. Teachers are not being adequately prepared at the primary level, to meet this situation.

Those islands whose basic primary education needs have stabilized would be looking towards providing more secondary – and tertiary level education. Secondary education is expected to be met locally by most countries but tertiary education is not as easily available for the islands except perhaps for Papua New Guinea. To date, two regional groupings exist in the Pacific region either to provide or co-ordinate the provision of tertiary education: the 11 independent or self-governing countries (except for Tokelau) of the South Pacific group that support The University of the South Pacific (USP), and the Pacific Post Secondary Education Council, membership of which comprises all the American Pacific group and which co-ordinates post-secondary education for the American Pacific islands. Without such co-operation it would be inconceivable for any of the Pacific islands given its population base, apart from Papua New Guinea, to support a full-fledged university from its own resources.¹⁰

It would not, however, be out of the reach of many of the island groups, to have colleges of higher education that might meet the needs of middle level manpower requirements. In certain cases, the establishment of such colleges has involved substantial aid from metropolitan sources. Some of the big islands will see it politically desirable for them to have a national college of higher education which could provide for various courses in needed areas and at the same time, ensure that its services are rationalized with its associated regional university (e.g. USP) or with an outside metropolitan university. A similar rationalization of efforts is expected to occur in the American Pacific group under the co-ordination of the Pacific Post Secondary Education Council.

There is a greater potential for increased co-ordination between the various island groups particularly between the American Pacific group and the South Pacific group especially in the provision of tertiary education. Most of the doctors currently practising on the American Pacific group of islands were graduates of the former regional Medical School in Suva, now known as the Fiji School of Medicine. In October 1984, the University of Guam signed a Memorandum of Understanding with USP and this could enhance greater co-operation in the field of education between the two regions. The USP and the University of Papua New Guinea are represented on one another's Council and they have already identified areas of

possible co-operation including an exchange scheme for their respective students. Even the idea of the development of a confederation of universities in the South Pacific involving the two universities in Papua New Guinea and the USP has been raised by Dr. James Maraj, the previous Vice-Chancellor of the University of the South Pacific.¹¹

There is much to be gained in co-operative efforts and indications are that this will be much stronger in the year 2000; such co-operation will contribute to a greater Pacific consciousness, provided, of course, that metropolitan pressures through bilateral aid arrangements do not undermine such co-operation.

New colonialism in education. For a variety of reasons, a number of metropolitan powers in the Pacific rim are exerting increasing influence on Pacific islands. Some of the influences are traditional and long standing. Promises of increasing aid and assistance, are the beginning of affiliations that could influence education significantly in the islands. In a recent Foreign Affairs report for example, it has been suggested that Australia should accept workers from Tuvalu and Kiribati as part of its development assistance scheme.¹² If this is implemented the goal of education in these two countries would shift to preparing people not only for working but also for living in Australia.

New Zealand has already been influencing the national curricula of many of the South Pacific countries through its examinations; it has also allowed many Polynesians to work and migrate to its shores, thus reducing unemployment in the islands somewhat. It also admits island students to study there and many of them do not return to the islands. This situation has often been referred to as aid to New Zealand by the Pacific Islands.¹³

The United States takes in people from the American Pacific group for education, employment and also gives them citizenship after a period of residency.

The end result of all this is a greater degree of dependence, a new colonialism. While it may have beneficial effects, it is bound to undermine the development of a coherent national educational system of the respective groups of islands and to encourage the loss of needed skills and manpower. This problem is bound to continue well into the year 2000. Perhaps, the Pacific islanders need to work

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out very urgently, the form of assistance they can get without putting themselves in a irreversible situation.

The various countries of the Pacific have not looked at what they think education will be like, or the way in which they want education to go in the next 20 to 50 years. Some have been gazing at the crystal ball but it has been really nothing more than that. It is important for the Pacific Islanders to begin to think for themselves. What do they want their education system to be like in the year 2000?

The various countries might organize conferences, perhaps supported by UNESCO to provide a forum for the educationalists and professionals from the various countries. Once Pacific island countries begin to think about those things there is a likelihood that they will try to work towards creating the kind of educational environment we have in mind 50 years from now.

Science and information technology. The impact of the development of science and technology cannot be ignored, although much of the technology is inappropriate to small island states. The fact that such high technology is available and that it is in the interest of metropolitan powers to have it accepted by the Pacific island states in itself helps to perpetuate an incongruent situation between island needs and technological supply. This situation highlights the need to generate a greater consciousness for more appropriate technologies especially those that depend on renewable energy sources for which the Pacific has a rich resource base such as the sun, the wind and ocean currents.

The availability of modern information technology can be used to enhance education developments especially in the area of computers, video cassettes, television and satellite. This of course calls for careful identification of needs in terms of knowledge and skills, the development of appropriate curricula and the choice of suitable media to be used in respective areas.¹⁴ Apart from the use of satellite in distance education in the USP region,* and the abortive attempt to introduce education television in American Samoa in the 1960s,¹⁵ the Pacific islands have been generally slow in making appropriate use of these technologies more particularly in the field

* For an account of this see *Distance education in Asia and the Pacific*, Bulletin of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific (26):1-119, 1-XL, December 1985.

of education. This is going to lead to the wholesale use of imported overseas programmes as is currently the case with video programmes in countries like Fiji and Papua New Guinea. The availability of satellite television would also mean that the Pacific islands could be exposed to overseas television (usually American) programmes at the touch of a switch.

The continual exposure of the Pacific islanders to imported programmes through video and or satellite television cannot be without its effect on their values, cultures and traditions. This would exacerbate a cosmopolitan orientation and undermine the development of a stronger Pacific consciousness.

Language and culture. As the Pacific increasingly becomes an area of competing powers, great stress will be placed on science and technology and generally on developments in the modern sector. While it is desirable and perhaps timely that the Pacific should move into the twenty-first century, it is hoped that it will not do so at the expense of its unique Pacific cultures and traditions which have given it a distinctive life-style. In order to do this, its cultures, languages and traditions need to be fostered and developed through various avenues including the schools and through whatever modern information technology is used.

Conclusions. The school traditions of the Pacific islands were derived from exported varieties from metropolitan countries. The schools were set up to support imposed systems and were relied upon to produce the necessary manpower particularly during the transition of the islands from a colonial to a self-governing and/or an independent status. The school systems generated their own sets of problems, and attempts made to redirect their orientation, form and content did not meet much success.

The above problems continue to bedevil the Pacific islanders and they are bound to affect their educational developments in the near and distant future. These are going to be compounded by other developments such as the increasing demand for basic education by new nations achieving greater self-determination, the pressure by metropolitan powers to have greater involvement in Pacific affairs, and recent developments in science and information technology. The directions which Pacific islands education are going to take in the year 2000 are going to depend on the extent to which these considerations are utilized by Pacific islanders to their advantage.

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1. This excludes Hawaii which geographically can be regarded as Pacific islands but politically is an integral part of the United States of America.
2. See: R.S. Peters, *Ethics and education*. London: Allen & Unwin, 1966. p. 65.
3. See: M. Mead, *Growing up in New Guinea*. New York, Blue Ribbon Book, 1930; M. Mead, *Coming of age in Samoa: a study of adolescence and sex in primitive societies*. Harmondsworth, Middlesex, England, Penguin, 1943; R. Firth, *We the Tikopia: a sociological study of kinship in primitive Polynesia*. London, G. Allen & Unwin, 1936.
4. See for example: M.J. Bowman [et al.], *Readings in the economics of education*. Paris, UNESCO, 1968; C. Anderson and M.J. Bowman, eds. *Education and economic development*. Chicago, Aldine, 1965; E.A.G. Robinson and J.E. Vaizey, eds. *The economics of education*. London, McMillan, 1966.
5. See: J.K. Nyerere, *Ujaama: essays on socialism*. Dar es Salaam, East Africa Publishing House, 1968.
6. *Education for modern Fiji: report of the 1969 Fiji Education Commission*. Suva, Fiji Government Printer, 1969. p. 52.
7. Minister for Education, Training and Culture. *New priorities for classes 7, 8, and 9 primary schools*. Tarawa, mimeographed, 27 August 1980. p. 2.
8. An example of this is the Navuso Agricultural School in Fiji which was primarily set up to train village farmers. The majority of Navuso graduates — about 80 per cent — do not take up farming; the majority of its graduates seek government jobs in the Fiji public service.
9. An example of this is the Fiji National Training Scheme which is concerned with the training of workers in the field.
10. François Doumenge, *Viability of small island states: report to United Nations Conference on Trade and Development*. (TD/B/950, July 1983) argues that a population of about 1 million is necessary to support a full-fledged university.
11. See: *Fiji times* article "Maraj Moots Federal USP", 26 May 1982, p. 1; see also "Statement of the Vice-Chancellor", *The University of the South Pacific Bulletin*, Vol. 15, No. 4, 28 May 1982. p. 15.

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12. *Report of the Committee to Review the Australian Overseas Aid Programme: the Jackson Commission*. Canberra, Australian Government Publishing Service, 1984.
13. For example: Joris de Bres. *How Tonga aids New Zealand: a report on migration and education*. South Pacific Action Network, 1974; Joris de Bres. *Worth their weight in gold*. Auckland, Resource Center for World Development, 1975.
14. Dr. Lasarus Vusoniwailala, personal communication, 18 October 1984.
15. See: Wilbur Schramm [et al.] *Bold experiment: the story of educational television in American Samoa*. Stanford, Stanford University Press, 1981.

Note: This article has been supplemented with extracts from an interview with Dr. Baba, in Fiji, in April 1986.

Towards the end of the nineteenth century and in the early years of the present century, scholars, colonial administrators, missionaries and the like were genuinely concerned that Pacific islanders quite possibly faced physical extinction. The voluntary and not-so-voluntary recruitment of Melanesians to work on distant overseas plantations, the kidnapping of Polynesians to work in mines in South America, greater destructiveness of warfare due to the introduction of firearms, and especially the ravages of introduced diseases, were some of the factors behind the alarming decline of island populations in the Pacific. But with improved health care, better control of labour recruitment, the proscription of internecine warfare, and so forth, the situation was gradually reversed.

There is a parallel between the situation just sketchily outlined and the pre-occupation, toward the end of our century, with the continuity or survival of the traditional cultures of the same groups of people. With a few exceptions (such as Niue and the Cook Islands because of emigration) there is no longer any concern about population decline. What seems problematic for many people, islanders and interested outsiders alike, is the survival of the so-called traditional cultures. Programmes have been mounted in the islands, funded largely by international organizations, for the preservation of

* From: *The Pacific Islands in the Year 2000.* Edited by Robert C. Kiste, Richard A. Herr, University of Hawaii and East-West Center, Honolulu, Hawaii, 1985, p. 151 - 170.

The title of this address has been taken from that of the *Review* (USP), No. 10, 1983, by Simone Durutalo.

THE FUTURE OF OUR PAST*



Epeli Hau'ofa

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traditional cultures. This concern with culture preservation is baffling. If we take it that 'culture' means the totality of the way of life of a given population at any given time, and that this way of life is subject to alteration as its environment changes, then why are the cultures of ex-colonial peoples being singled out for preservation, or for that matter, why is there so much concern about their survival? Those industrial countries that have dominated the Pacific Islands over the last 200 years have not displayed much concern for the preservation of their own cultures as such; in fact their position of dominance has been achieved maintained through constant ruthless changes in their traditions; the whole idea of growth and development means continuous change of technologies and value systems. In view of this, one cannot help but suspect that underlying the seemingly humane concern with the preservation of the traditions of the islands of the South Pacific, and indeed the third world in general are some rather insidious motives including keeping sections of communities contented with their relative poverty and oppression.

It is not intended, in this paper to 'grind an axe', or to make accusations about neo-colonial exploitation. Let us as scholars do what we are good at, and that is making mountains out of mole-hills, constructing realities out of illusions, endowing triviality with significance, and talking about traditional value systems in the year 2000 — not knowing exactly what we mean by the term 'traditions' in the context of the contemporary South Pacific, let alone their potential for survival into the twenty first century.

If by 'traditional' we mean purely indigenous, as many people have taken the term to imply, then there are very few things in the Pacific islands today that could be labelled 'traditional'. Of those few things that could be so designated, the most important are the native languages spoken by islanders today; but even here, the languages have been greatly affected by non-Oceanic influences, especially in the area of vocabulary. In most other areas of culture, aspects loosely termed 'traditional' are in fact things that have either been borrowed holus-bolus or have been mixed to varying degrees with introduced elements from Europe, America and Asia. The present aristocratic systems of Fiji and Tonga are in fact the creations of the nineteenth century — mixtures of indigenous and non-indigenous elements. Yet these systems are considered 'traditional' by Fijians and Tongans alike. So, for the purposes of this paper,

'traditions' and 'traditional values' are taken to mean practices and beliefs held by a given population over a period of time, say, one hundred or so years. I also consider as traditional, practices and values deliberately created and cultivated recently by island leaders for their fellow men and their descendants to follow. Here then, we have traditions that are old and those that have been relatively recently established but increasingly accepted and having potential for long term growth and survival, although that potential can only be roughly estimated.

The other thing about traditions, and this seems to be the important issue, is the nature, or more precisely the origins, of the various elements that constitute a particular tradition. The question here is the identification of the origins of the elements of a particular tradition, which elements are indigenous and which non-indigenous. The indigenous elements are those whose origins can be traced back to the values and practices that existed before the earliest contact with alien cultures, in particular those originating outside Oceania. The non-indigenous elements are those aspects of a tradition that were introduced from cultures outside the Pacific islands region. This distinction between indigenous and non-indigenous elements of contemporary traditions is very important because generally, when people think of the survival of the traditional value systems, they, in fact, mean the continuity or persistence of indigenous (or aboriginal) elements of traditions rather than the traditions as such, for as mentioned above, there are very few important traditions in the islands today that are purely indigenous.

Finally, the degree of indigenosity of particular traditions held by a people varies according to the extant interests of different classes and other divisions within the society. In the internal politics in Tonga, Western Samoa, and Fiji, for example, the leaders often emphasize the indigenous aristocratic elements of their leadership tradition because it is in their interests that this should be so. Those who tend to stress the non-indigenosity aspects of leadership are more likely to be members of classes other than the chiefly ones. Furthermore, the rural dwellers, who are generally poor, are more likely to practise indigenous aspects of traditions than the culturally alienated, urban-based elite whose adherence to things indigenous is often more professed and idealistic than practical.

What are referred to here as indigenous values, as distinct from traditional values, have their roots in the past of Pacific island societies before the invasion of European values. Indigenous values are rooted firstly in subsistence economies with non-metal, non-mechanical tools, and with generally highly perishable products; secondly, in transportation modes based on foot and canoes; thirdly, in the scale of society that was generally small and intimate; and fourthly, in exclusively oral methods of communication. Since the economic, transportation and communication systems and the population structures of the Pacific have changed and are changing, the value systems based on them must necessarily have changed too. But it is often the case that changes in value systems lag far behind changes in other areas of culture and society. It is the existence of these persistent values evocative of the past that causes concern about the survival of traditional cultures. The persistence of such values is due to the fact that changes in the economic, transportation and communication systems are not yet total: subsistence or semi-subsistence economic activities exist side by side with modern commercial activities; the improvement in transportation systems is limited to certain areas of societies; and illiteracy and semi-literacy are still with us. Moreover, the persistence of outmoded values can be politically useful to powerful interests in modern island societies, and these values seem also to provide the essential elements for the formation of distinctive local, national, regional and ethnic identities.

But what were the values that sprang from and were appropriate to the conditions outlined above? I am conscious here of the danger of over-generalization, but compelled to resort to this tactic because it is only through a degree of over-generalization that we are able to transcend the relativity and the great complexity of Pacific island cultures, of which there are probably more than a thousand. Keeping this in mind, I venture to suggest that the most important indigenous values held by Pacific islanders were as follows.

1. The primacy of group interests over those of individuals as such. Unlike people in Western societies, Pacific islanders stressed the importance of groups rather than that of the individual. The main responsibilities of an individual were not for himself or herself but for various groups to which he or she belonged. Individualism, as we know it, was considered selfish and anti-social behaviour. This emphasis on the group was an essential feature of subsistence

existence based on primitive tools, and of uncentralized political systems that were prone to inter-group violence in the settlement of disputes. Economic and political interdependence necessitated the emphasis on group solidarity at the expense of individual interests. And Pacific islanders grouped themselves mostly according to the principles of kinship ties, and secondarily along the principle of locality.

2. Sharing of goods and services. The ideas of sharing and of mutual assistance were highly valued. Most inter-personal and inter-group relationships were created and sustained through constant acts of giving and taking and sharing. These values were based on the necessity for group efforts in the performance of heavy tasks using primitive tools, and for the consumption of highly perishable products such as root-crops, fruits and meats given the lack of methods for effective food preservation.

3. A sense for place and for social continuity. The sense for place is the attachment to the physical locality in which one's ancestors lived and died and in which one lives. The sense for social continuity is the importance people place on their continuity with their ancestors and with their future generations. The sense for place and continuity developed out of limited physical mobility in the past because of elementary forms of transportation, rugged terrain and watery isolation between islands or groups of islands. Personal and social identities were rooted in kinship ties and in ancestral territories.

4. Intimacy in interpersonal relationships. This was very important even in the relationships between people at different levels of society. Personalized relationships, especially those based on ties of kinship and locality, were the order of the day. (Impersonal relationships are still alien to most Pacific islanders). This was a function of the smallness in the scale of island societies. Within each socio-political unit everyone knew everyone else, and if pressed, people could actually trace kinship connections with each other. The relationships between leaders and the led were usually phrased in terms of kinship relationships. The smallness in the scale of societies resulted from elementary technologies of warfare, transportation and production, as well as from geographical and demographic factors.

5. The recording and communication of ideas, of customary laws, genealogies, historical events, and rights and obligations of all

kinds were very flexible, creative and highly politicised. Truth was, and still is to a large extent, negotiable. The idea that Pacific islanders were slaves to the dictates of their cultures is a myth; islanders were in fact masters of their cultures — they manipulated them at will. This was made easier because of the absence of written records. Pacific cultures were based on oral traditions; and as we all know, when everything is transmitted orally and in no other form, anything can happen provided that the transmitters have the ability and power to make things happen. So every group had its expert orators, spokesmen and other liars to tell, and if possible force through, their versions of truth.

6. Self-sufficiency and self-reliance. Most people provided through their own efforts for all their needs. Only a very small number of groups depended on trade, which was conducted as barter between long established partners, and hardly ever between total strangers. Exchange was largely in terms of luxury goods, or more correctly, items of ceremonial value — feathers, shells, mats, tapa* and so forth. Self-sufficiency and self-reliance was a function of integrated subsistence existence.

7. Care for members of society — especially for the elderly and the otherwise disabled. There were no social welfare services as we know today so people had to take care of their own. And because of the close kinship bonding that sprang from lifelong togetherness, of reverence for ancestors whose spirits had to be appeased (as they were considered active in the world of the living), and of future security for themselves, people never entertained the idea of abandoning their elderly and their disabled relatives. Caring was ultimately a responsibility to one's corporate kin-group, which always comprised the dead, the living and the future generations. There were very few exceptions, all found in resource poor environments, but the general pattern was as described above. This sense of caring for one's relatives is still strong throughout the island societies.

8. The arts and entertainments were integrated into community life. There was no such thing as art for art's sake. The sense for beauty was always imprinted on objects of utility: tools, implements, houseware, personal effects, canoes, buildings and sacred images. Poetry, music and dance were mostly integrated into, and usually

* Cloth made from the bark of the paper-mulberry tree in the Pacific islands.

performed as part of, some religious or community festivals or ceremonies. And there was a great deal of entertainment and fun in most serious group activities: in gardening, fish drives, construction of private and public buildings, and in religious ceremonies, even when these were connected with mortuary rites. The easy enjoyment of life and the sense of fun that people associate with islanders is not just a myth; it is a reality. Perhaps one reason why many islanders do not appear willing to give sustained effort to the so-called development activities is that such activities are not only foreign, they are also so deadly serious and devoid of any sense of enjoyment and fun. The Protestant work ethic is a prescription for a life of joyless toil — and it has no place in the islanders' view of the good life.

The conditions under which these indigenous values developed have changed over the last two hundred years. I shall not enter into a discussion of these changes in the economic, transportation and communication systems and demographic structure because we are very familiar with them. Suffice it to say that changes in technology and in population must in the long run be accompanied by changes in value systems. As far as I am concerned it is impossible to maintain values, however laudable they may be, if their material bases have been altered dramatically. Given the changes that have occurred in the environment, the problem is to pinpoint the directions of change in indigenous values. The rest of the present paper deals with these trends.

1. We examine first the value related to the primacy of group interests over those individuals as such. There is much talk by island leaders about islanders leading lives that emphasize the community rather than the individual. Fr. Walter Lini's concept of Melanesian Socialism is based on this value. The fact is that the inexorable shift from subsistence to a capitalist mode of production belies the professed value because capitalism, at least in its Pacific manifestation, emphasizes the individual profit motive and accumulation. The direction of change is unmistakably from group orientation to greater individualism; and national financial institutions, especially the development banks, are supporting this movement. We can see this very clearly in the changes occurring in the systems of land rights. Indigenous land tenure systems vested the major rights to land in social groups such as extended families, clans and so forth. But the

mode of development to which island nations have committed themselves prescribes the increasing individualization of land rights. Tonga was the first Pacific island nation so to change its land tenure, and presently there is a move in Tonga to introduce a freehold system for the entire country. Fiji leads the rest in the individualization of land holding; and development banks throughout the island South Pacific demand, as collateral for loans for agricultural and other land related development, individual leases on tracts of land held by kinship groups. There are other factors for this trend toward individualism at the expense of the indigenous value of group solidarity, but the example given above is sufficient to illustrate the point.

A trend toward individualism and the greater atomisation of society is the emerging decline in the significance of extended family systems and the rise of the nuclear family as the basic social unit. This is also a consequence of the shift from purely subsistence toward commercial production, as well as demographic changes, the influence of Christian teachings, urbanization and modern Western-type education. There is also a trend toward family life with absentee fathers, that is toward matrilocal family units, because of the increasing labour mobility not only from rural to urban areas, but also from one country to another. This is especially true of Polynesia because of the relative ease with which Polynesians can emigrate to New Zealand, Australia, Hawaii and West Coast USA.

Individualism is increasingly becoming the life-style of the urban-based island elite that often advocate group solidarity for the rural masses. But given the opportunity within the capitalist mode of development, rural dwellers, if they really want to overcome their relative poverty, will have to strive toward individualism, despite efforts by their leaders to get them organized into co-operative groupings of various kinds.

2. Sharing of goods and services. This was relatively easy in the past when most people in a society performed roughly the same tasks and produced virtually identical goods. But changes in economic activities have meant, among other things, that people are performing a much greater variety of tasks than before, and producing a much wider range of goods. Goods and services therefore vary greatly in value, making it increasingly difficult for people to share things fairly; this affects adversely, people's willingness to share.

As mentioned above, because of the high perishability of goods produced in the subsistence economies of the islands, people had to give their surpluses to their relatives and friends if things were not to be wasted. But today, because money is not so perishable and can be stored at home or in banks, there is a mounting inclination for people to keep their money for themselves rather than to give it away.

The indigenous values of sharing and meeting one's social obligations have also come under intensifying attack by development officials and agencies who consider these values to be inimical to progress.

Under the conditions outlined above it appears that Pacific islanders who have always stressed the virtue of generosity, are heading toward being increasingly mean and accumulative — values that are appropriate to modern modes of development.

3. The tremendous increase in physical mobility brought about by changing modes of production, the introduction of efficient systems of transportation, the creation of larger territorial units to which people belong, and so forth, have wrought changes in islanders' sense for place and social continuity. Although people still identify themselves with the localities of their origins, they are also required to identify with several larger units — districts, provinces and the nations themselves. This is a particularly traumatic experience in western Melanesia because of the size and cultural complexity of, as well as the recency of their being organized into, national entities. But such identifications vary in accordance with the individual's actual mobility and the territorial extent of his or her interests. Those who live mostly in villages still maintain the indigenous sense for place. Those who occupy positions in national institutions or in large-scale enterprises identify themselves more easily with the larger territorial units. Among the elite, there is also growing transnational identification with regional units, and with international groups with which they have professional or business connections. The trend seems to be that the more sedentary sections of societies, in generally poor and rural dwellings, maintain very confined social worlds, while the more mobile sections have worlds that are far larger than their actual places of ancestral origins. The sense for continuity with the ancestors and therefore with the past is strongest among the poor and weakest among the more

mobile elite groups. Ancestors and ancestral spirits do not have significant influences over their lives. They are learning to live without them. This alienation from ancestors is part and parcel of the broader alienation from the past, and therefore, from the indigenous elements of traditions. The greatest danger for the survival of the indigenous elements of traditions is posed today not so much by outsiders as by the educated, relatively wealthy, urban-based local elite. They are the ones who are locally instrumental in deciding the directions of change for their countries.

Paradoxically, it is also from the ranks of the alienated elite that conscious efforts for culture preservation and for cultural revival have emerged. The sensitive and creative minded people who live outside or on the margins of traditions are the most vocal in their efforts to preserve what little indigenous elements of traditions they still retain, or to review other elements. This is fine so long as preservation or revival does not cost them their modern life styles. They are, therefore, highly selective in what they wish to retain or to retrieve. This underlies the belief that people can consciously combine the best from the past and the present. It never works out that way, for when it comes down to actual choices, the best of the past is always sacrificed even for the worst of the present.

4. Intimacy in personal relationships. The enlargement of the scale of society from largely village or small island communities into national units, the rapid population growth rates, and the increasing use of money as a medium in the relationships between people are, at certain levels, transforming the nature of interpersonal relationships from intimately personal into remote, impersonal and contractual relationships. This trend in changing values is distinctly discernible so that by about the turn of the century intimate personal relationships, which pervaded entire societies of the past and still are relatively pervasive today, will be more restricted and increasingly replaced at strategic levels by impersonal, contractual relationships which are more appropriate to mass societies.

5. The flexibility with which social relationships were conducted, with which information of all kinds was gathered, interpreted and transmitted, and with which truth was negotiated, is rapidly giving way to rigidity because of the codification of rules of behaviour, documentary recording of events, precisely written contracts and other forms of agreements. The informality which

characterizes much of the interpersonal relationships in the islands is giving way to formal and rigidly structured relationships. Spontaneity is losing ground to calculation, the ultimate expression of which is the canned laughter on the radio programmes of today.

6. The progressive movement away from subsistence existence toward commercialism and the progressive adoption of expensive life-styles on the part of the ruling elite have eroded the indigenous values of self-reliance. Perhaps the most unfortunate effect of modern forms of development on islanders is the transformation of hitherto economically independent people into wards of rich countries. The idea that the present kinds of socio-economic development will restore self-reliance is a falsehood. All of Micronesia and Polynesia are heading toward complete neo-colonial dependence on their former colonial masters. French Polynesia, Niue, American Samoa, Tokelau and the former Trust Territories of Micronesia are retired, pensioned societies. Western Samoa, Tonga, Cook Islands, Tuvalu and Kiribati are in semi-retirement, living partly on the dole. To a greater or lesser degree all other South Pacific island countries are dependent in one form or another on foreign aid. Perhaps the only self-reliant groups of people in the island world are the few small communities in Melanesia who prefer to live in their remote and almost inaccessible localities, for example, the mountain Kwaio of Malaita, the pagans of South Pentecost and some similar groups in Papua New Guinea. These people have deliberately made the decision to keep their distance from alien influences including Christianity. Their few involvements with modern society are very restricted and highly selective.

7. Caring for members of society. The indigenous method of social security in which the elderly and the disabled are taken care of by their families is still strong and likely to remain so for a long time to come. This is just as well because so far the island states are incapable of providing their entire populations with alternative forms of social security services. Nevertheless, Fiji, the most urbanized and highly developed of the island countries, already has a number of old people's homes, orphanages, and mental institutions. And beggars have started to appear on the streets of island capitals. With rapid population growth and increasing poverty in the islands, the care for the elderly, the disabled and the destitute will become a problem in the region. But this appears to be a long term prospect.

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8. The demise of indigenous religions and their attendant rituals and ceremonies, the replacement of wood and bone tools and implements by imported factory products, and the passing away of the canoe and indigenous building designs, have meant the disappearance of many of the art forms of the islands, some of which have been revived in modified forms in recent years for commercial purposes, especially for sale to tourists. Indigenous forms of entertainment, once performed in communities for people's enjoyment, are increasingly deployed for commercial purposes — in connection with tourism or with fund-raising for community projects. Where once these entertainments were performed by everyone in the community who wished to participate, today we have an increasing number of professional entertainers and professional dance groups who perform at hotels and even take their shows abroad. Commercialism and professionalism go hand in hand, at the expense of community participation and amateurism.

On the other hand, the rich heritage from the past — of carving, designs, music, poetry and mythology — is a source of inspiration for the rising number of creative artists in the islands. Modern sculptors, painters, musicians, poets and writers are tapping this wealth for their own creations. Melanesia tends to produce excellent carvers, sculptors and artists, whilst from Polynesia come some really good poets and writers. These artists work in modern media to produce art works that are distinctively modern Oceanic in character — they are producing new images and new voices for the new Pacific Islands.

The indigenous elements of Pacific island cultures have also been deployed for other purposes. In the multi-cultural situations of Melanesian countries, national leaders appeal to common cultural elements that their people share in their efforts to forge real unity for their countries, and to create new and distinctive national identities. In Papua New Guinea Bernard Narokobi propounded the 'Melanesian Way' in order to provide the then new nation with a philosophy for unity. In Vanuatu, Father Walter Lini, who used the appeal of Kastom to unite the New Hebrideans in their fight for independence, now propounds the philosophy of Melanesian Socialism for his country. Apart from these national political usages of indigenous elements of culture, the idea of a Melanesian Alliance based on broad similarities in the indigenous elements of the cultures

of Papua New Guinea, Solomon Islands and Vanuatu is in the air. In reference to the Melanesian Alliance, Father Walter Lini, in the September (1984) issue of *Islands Business*, had this to say:

What seems to be the position, as it appears in the media, is the creation of a Melanesian bloc. That there is going to be a Melanesian bloc and a Polynesian bloc. In fact, our view of the Melanesian bloc is in trying to encourage Melanesian traditions, and to try to see them more clearly. We are not talking about a political alliance. It is a misconception. We are simply talking about Melanesian ways, customs and values. It is very important to educate the young people to be able to know them again.

A rather stunted cousin of the 'Melanesian Way' is the 'Pacific Way', which represents half-hearted attempts by some rather unconvinced politicians and regional academics to provide a form of ideology and identity for regional unity among Polynesians, Melanesians and Micronesians. The Pacific Way comprises cultural elements, both indigenous and non-indigenous believed to be commonly shared by islanders. The Pacific Way has not yet developed into a real ideology — and is unlikely to become anything other than a convenient label for things that the mobile island elite groups share — especially their privileges. Part of the problem is that the Pacific Way as an idea is confined to the regional elite; there has been no attempt to have it rooted in island societies at large. It is probably not possible to popularize the idea beyond a small group of the privileged and the regionally mobile.

There is also a rising Polynesian consciousness. Despite great distances and centuries of isolation, the various peoples of Polynesia have maintained close cultural similarities that are rooted in a parental culture of some two thousand years ago. They share similar myths, ancient religions, languages, and physical appearances. The population mobility of recent years has brought many Polynesian peoples together in places like Auckland, Wellington, Sydney, Honolulu and other cities on mainland USA. There is, of course, mutual suspicion and inter-group hostilities, but there is also an increasing mixing of these peoples of the same ethnic stock.

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Polynesian writers, poets, artists and scholars are now using images from each other's traditions in their own creations. Te Rangi Hiroa was probably the first pan-Polynesian man whose works on Polynesian cultures remain a milestone in Polynesian scholarship. I myself have only recently established contacts with Polynesian scholars, writers, poets and artists here in Hawaii, and with the Maori of New Zealand as well as with those of Fiji, Samoa and Cook Islands. It is a very exciting experience — to meet people who were totally strangers but who, upon the first meeting, realize instantly a kind of affinity — a kinship of spirit — the roots of which go far, far back into mythological times.

Although the past two hundred years have done much to destroy or change indigenous cultures, the experiences of the late twentieth century have brought about an awareness of broad cultural similarities among the peoples of the Pacific islands. The Melanesian consciousness is rising, and so is that of Polynesians. It is perhaps the old gods themselves, Maui, Tangaroa, Kane and others, who have drawn Polynesians from their far flung islands to flock to Aotearoa* and Hawaii in order to help keep their ancient imprints alive. An increasing number of those who have not emigrated are establishing links that will help to keep the old spirit of Polynesians alive, well into the twenty-first century.

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* In Maori, the 'Land of the long white cloud' or New Zealand.

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NOTES ABOUT THE AUTHORS

DR. MALCOLM S. ADISESHIAH is currently Chairman of the Madras Institute of Development Studies, a post he has occupied since 1978. The Institute, which he directed from 1971 to 1978 was founded by both himself and Mrs. Adiseshiah in 1971 as an educational trust to contribute towards the economic development of Tamil Nadu and India. Prior to this Dr. Adiseshiah served UNESCO from 1948 until 1970, when he retired from the post of Deputy Director-General. It was during this period that Dr. Adiseshiah was responsible for the development of the Karachi Plan for universal primary education for Asia and educational development and science plans for Africa and Latin America. He has also served as Vice Chancellor of the University of Madras and President of the governing board of the UNESCO International Institute of Educational Planning.

MR. ISAO AMAGI is Vice-Chairman, Japanese National Commission for UNESCO, having been a member of the committee since 1972; Special Adviser to the Minister of Education, Science and Culture, a position he has held since 1975; and Director-General, National Centre for the Development of Broadcast Education since 1982. Graduating from the Faculty of Law, University of Tokyo, Mr. Amagi has held a number of key positions in education. At various times during the period 1960 to 1969 he was Director-General of the Minister's Secretariat, Research Bureau, Administrative Bureau, Higher Education and Science Bureau, and the Elementary and Secondary Education Bureau. Mr. Amagi was, for some time, Vice-Minister of Education, Science and Culture and, more recently, Chairman of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)/Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, Governing Board.

His Excellency, DATO' RAHMAN ARSHAD has been Director-General of Education in Malaysia since 1985. He has extensive qualifications in educational administration and management. Having been educated at universities in Malaysia, Singapore and the United Kingdom, he also completed an Executive Management Course at the Administrative Staff College in New Zealand and an Advanced Management Course at the Harvard Business School in the United States. Prior to his latest appointment he held a number of senior posts in the Ministry of Education. During the period 1970 to 1985 Dato' Rahman Arshad was Director of Examinations; Director of the Educational Planning and Research Division; and Deputy Director-General of Education.

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MR. FRANCIS BUGOTU, CBE will complete an extended term as Secretary-General of the South Pacific Commission in 1986, a post that he took up in 1982. Originally an educator by profession, Mr. Bugotu later became Permanent Secretary for Education of the Solomon Islands from 1975 to 1976, then Secretary to the Prime Minister and Cabinet and titular head of the Civil Service. At the time the Solomon Islands attained independence, he was appointed Secretary for Foreign Affairs and concurrently Roving Envoy (Ambassador/High Commissioner) to the rest of the World with accreditations to Australia, Canada, New Zealand, Sweden, United Kingdom, United States, West Germany and to the European Economic Community in Brussels and the United Nations in New York.

PROFESSOR AHMAD HASAN DANI was bestowed the title of Professor Emeritus, Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad, in 1980. He is also Director, Quaid-i-Azam Memorial and Museum (since 1977) and (Hon.) Director, Centre for the Study of the Civilizations of Central Asia (since 1972) within the Quaid-i-Azam University. During his long academic career Professor Dani has been awarded a number of fellowships and visiting professorships and is currently (Hon.) Fellow of the Asiatic Society of Bangladesh, Member, German Institute of Archaeology, and (Hon.) Fellow, Institute of West Central Asia, Karachi University. Professor Dani has written extensively on history, art, architecture, epigraphy and mathematics. He is Editor-in-Chief, *Journal of Central Asia* and has been a member of the Board of Governors of the 'Save Mohenjodaro Project' since 1974. Professor Dani was awarded the Sitara-i-Imtiaz by the Government of Pakistan in 1969 and the Gold Medal by the Asiatic Society of Bangladesh in 1985.

MR. HIROSHI KIDA is Director-General, Japan Society for the Promotion of Science; Member, Japanese National Commission for UNESCO; and Member, Science Council, Ministry of Education Science and Culture. After becoming Director-General of the Out-of-School Education Bureau in 1966 he was Director-General, Physical Education Bureau; Director-General, Higher Education and Science Bureau; and Director-General, Science and International Affairs Bureau. From 1974 to 1976 Mr. Kida was Secretary-General, Japanese National Commission for UNESCO, until his appointment as Permanent Vice-Minister of Education, Science and Culture. He was then appointed Director-General of the National Institute for Educational Research from 1978 to 1985. Mr. Kida is President of both the Japan Educational Administration Society and the Japan Society of Educational Information and the author of several publications on various aspects of education.

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DR. KEN McKINNON, is Chairman of the Australian National Commission for UNESCO and Vice-Chancellor of the University of Wollongong. He obtained his Ed. D at Harvard. After teaching in South Australia in the early 1950s, Dr. McKinnon continued his career in Papua New Guinea. He was head teacher, District Education Officer and Superintendent (Primary) before becoming Director of Education, Papua New Guinea in 1966. Dr. McKinnon was a member of the Australian delegation to the General Conference of UNESCO in 1972. He is a past Chairman of the Schools Council of Australia.

MR. W.L. RENWICK has been Director-General of Education for New Zealand since 1975. He is Chairman, New Zealand National Commission for UNESCO; member of the Advisory Committee for Education in Asia and the Pacific; Member of the Council of The University of the South Pacific; Member (and one-time chairman), Governing Board for the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, OECD, Paris; Leader New Zealand delegation to the 8th Commonwealth Ministers of Education Conference, Colombo, Sri Lanka, 1980; Leader, New Zealand delegation to MINEDAP V, Bangkok, 1985. Mr. Renwick's various publications include 'Moving Targets': Six essays on educational policy in New Zealand, NZCER, 1986.

MR. ANAND SARUP is Secretary, Ministry of Education, Government of India. He has been a member of the Indian Administrative Service since 1954. After six years in senior positions in the State of Uttar Pradesh, Mr. Sarup became Deputy Secretary, Director and Joint Secretary in charge of State and Multilevel Planning in the National Planning Commission, Government of India, New Delhi in 1966, a post he held until 1974. In addition he became Chief of the Programme Evaluation Organization, Government of India from 1972 to 1974. From 1974 to 1980 Mr. Sarup returned to Uttar Pradesh to assume the posts of Secretary to Government in Public Works, Transport and Tourism; Secretary, Planning, Evaluation and Statistics and Chairman of the State Planning Institute, Lucknow. Mr. Sarup was Vice-Chancellor, G.B. Pant University of Agriculture and Technology, and from 1983 to 1985 Additional Secretary, Ministry of Commerce, Government of India.

DR. (MRS) MADHURI RATILAL SHAH was Chairman of the University Grants Commission, New Delhi from 1981 to 1986. She has had a long and distinguished academic career, culminating in the award of Ph.D in Educational Administration, University of Bombay in 1952 and Ph.D in Comparative Education, University of London in 1954. Prior to that Dr. Shah was Professor of Education, Institute of Education, Bombay from 1950 to 1955; Research Officer (Education) and later Education Officer for the Municipal Corporation of Greater Bombay during the period 1955 to

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1975; and Vice-Chancellor, Shreemati Nathibai Damodar Thakersey Women's University from 1975 to 1981. Dr. Shah has held many diverse positions in professional organizations and universities such as International President, World Education Fellowship, London; President, Fellowship of the Physically Handicapped, Bombay; and Member, Council of Consultant Fellows of the International Institute for Educational Planning, UNESCO, Paris. She has had more than 200 research papers and books published.

MR. WU WEI is a Researcher of Education and Director of the Central Institute of Educational Research, Beijing who specializes in the theory of educational policy. Originally graduated from the Chinese Department of Nankai University, Mr. Wu has had a long and distinguished career in education.

ROYAL PROFESSOR UNGKU A. AZIZ is Vice Chancellor, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, since his appointment in 1968, and Royal Professor of Economics (Rural Development). Professor Aziz was previously Head, Department of Economics, Faculty of Arts, from 1961 to 1964; and Dean, Faculty of Economics and Administration, 1965 to 1967, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur. He is Chairman, Malaysian National Council of the Association of Southeast Asian Institutions of Higher Learning (ASAIHL); Chairman, Board of Directors, University of Malaya Co-operative Bookshop; and President, National Co-operative Organization of Malaysia. He is a member of both the International Advisory Council University College, Buckingham, England, and the Editorial Advisory Board of the Asia-Pacific Community (The Asian Club). Until recently Professor Aziz was a member of the United Nations University Council and he has collaborated with various United Nations specialized agencies on numerous occasions.

DR. HYUNG SUP CHOI is Chairman, Korea Human Development Institute and Member, National Academy of Sciences, Republic of Korea. Since gaining his Ph.D in Metallurgical Engineering, University of Minnesota in 1958, Dr. Choi has been Director-General, Atomic Energy Research Institute; President, Korea Institute of Science and Technology; Minister of Science and Technology, Republic of Korea from 1971 to 1978; President of the Korea Science and Engineering Foundation 1977-1980; President, Korea Advanced Institute for Science; and Chairman, Institute for Systems Development, Transnational from 1981 to 1984. He took up his present post in 1985. Dr. Choi is the author of nine books and 115 articles on metallurgical engineering, science policy, technology development and strategy and research management.

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MR. NEIL FERNANDO, from Sri Lanka, is CFTC Expert in Development Administration attached as Fellow in Development Administration, Institute of Social and Administrative Studies, The University of the South Pacific, Suva, Fiji. Mr. Fernando has served for 25 years in different capacities in the public sector in Sri Lanka, the most recent being Director of Employment and Manpower Planning; Director of Management Services; Additional Director, Sri Lanka Institute of Development Administration; and Additional Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Education, Sri Lanka. He has also served as consultant to the World Bank, United Nations Centre for Regional Development (UNCRD) and FAO. Areas of research include development administration, education management and development analysis. Mr. Fernando is the author of five books on regional administration; regional development; public management; and education management. He is presently writing a book on development analysis in the South Pacific states.

DR. A.M. SHARAFUDDIN was appointed to the post of Secretary, Science and Technology Division, Government of Bangladesh, in 1984. He began his career as lecturer and then as Professor of Physics in various government colleges. After obtaining his Ph.D in Science Education from the University of Chicago, he served as Deputy Director and then Director of what is now known as the National Institute of Educational Administration, Extension and Research, an institution providing continuous in-service education to teachers and educational administrators. He later held senior positions in educational administration including Director of Public Instruction in Bangladesh and Additional Secretary to the Ministry of Education. Dr. Sharafuddin is well known as a popularizer of science, for which he was awarded the Kalinga Prize by UNESCO in 1983. He has also won many national awards including the President's gold medal for outstanding services to education (1985).

DR. KAW SWASDI PANICH, originally trained as a teacher in Thailand and the United States, later taking his Ph.D from the University of California. He has, over the years, risen from teacher to the highest positions, nationally and internationally, within the educational field. He has filled the position of Minister of Education in Thailand, Deputy Minister of Education (on two occasions) and the posts of Director-General of General Education and of Secondary Education as well as numerous other positions at the national level. Internationally, Dr. Kaw has *inter alia* held the position as Vice-Chairman of the Executive Board of UNESCO and was, for several years, the Director of the Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Secretariat (SEAMES). Dr. Kaw has been highly decorated for his services to Thailand, which include his terms as Chairman of the Executive Board, National Education Commission; member of the Civil

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Service Commission, the sub-committee for the prevention and suppression of drugs, and the Senates of both the Thammasat and Ramkhamhaeng Universities.

DR. TUPENI BABA is Reader in Education at The University of the South Pacific, Suva, Fiji. Apart from four years absence from an academic post, when he served as Registrar for the same university, Dr. Baba has worked in the Department of Education since 1971 as Lecturer, then as Senior Lecturer. He was involved also with the UNDP/UNESCO Secondary Curriculum Unit which was located at the, then, School of Education of the University (1970-1975). Before that Dr. Baba was a secondary school teacher in the Fiji school system. He holds a BA Dip Ed from the University of New England, Australia, a Masters in Education from Sydney University and a Ph.D in Education from Macquarie University.

DR. EPELI HAU'OFA is a Tongan, born in Papua New Guinea and educated in Papua New Guinea, Tonga, Fiji, Australia and Canada. Dr. Hau'ofa obtained his Ph.D at Australian National University. He is presently Head of Sociology, School of Social and Economic Development, The University of the South Pacific. Dr. Hau'ofa has written a number of short stories set in the Pacific, the most recent collection being titled 'Tales of the Tikong'.

ABOUT THE BULLETIN

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